



Université du Québec
à Rimouski

Rareté et changements globaux : Tolérance aux changements globaux et capacité pour la plasticité transgénérationnelle chez une espèce rare et une espèce commune de polychètes marins

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RÉSUMÉ

Les émissions de dioxyde de carbone d'origine anthropique ont augmenté considérablement, depuis la période d'industrialisation, et ne cesseront d'augmenter d'ici la fin du siècle. Les métazoaires marins continueront non seulement de faire face à une augmentation de la température des eaux de surface dû à ces émissions, mais aussi à l'acidification des océans. Ces changements dans leur environnement auront des impacts sur leur histoire de vie et leur traits physiologiques. Les espèces auront-elles la capacité de s'acclimater dans ces environnements changeants et pourront-elles s'adapter à long terme. La plasticité phénotypique est le mécanisme permettant l'acclimatation des organismes et varie selon leur distribution géographique et leur niche fondamentale. Une meilleure compréhension des réponses des individus face aux changements globaux, en fonction de leur distribution géographique, est donc essentielle pour la conservation de la biodiversité marine. Les objectifs de ma maîtrise sont de déterminer si les espèces rares et communes répondent différemment aux changements globaux et de déterminer si leur tolérance et leur plasticité transgénérationnelle les rend plus vulnérables aux changements anticipés. Pour répondre à ces objectifs, j'ai soumis deux espèces de polychète du genre *Ophryotrocha*, une espèce rare (*O. robusta*) et une espèce commune (*O. japonica*), à une condition contrôle (C) et trois scénarios imitant les conditions climatiques prédites à la fin du siècle pendant deux générations. Les trois scénarios climatiques futures sont les suivantes : acidification des océans (AO), réchauffement des océans (RO) et une condition combinant ces deux dernières (RAO). Des traits d'histoire de vie (croissance, fécondité et volume des œufs) ont été mesurés sur une période de quatre mois. Par la suite, des analyses métabolomiques ont été réalisées afin de mettre en évidence les patrons métaboliques (c.-à-d. métabolisme énergétique) associées aux changements de traits observés chez les individus. Les individus de l'espèce rare ont atteint un taux de mortalité de 100 % après 49 jours dans les scénarios RO et RAO, et ne se sont pas reproduit. Ceci est congruent avec les résultats métabolomiques, qui démontrent une plus grande dépense énergétique sous ces conditions. La fécondité des deux

espèces a été réduite sous AO (33 % chez l'espèce rare et 75 % chez l'espèce commune), pour ensuite être rétablie à des valeurs contrôle en F2, voir supérieure dans le cas de l'espèce rare. L'espèce commune ne semble pas être affectée par les conditions de changements globaux, à l'exception d'une réduction du volume des œufs en F2 lorsqu'exposé au RO. L'espèce rare aurait donc une fenêtre de tolérance beaucoup plus restreinte que l'espèce commune et ne serait pas en mesure de supporter les conditions climatiques anticipées à la fin du siècle. Ces résultats ont une portée importante sur la conservation de la biodiversité marine, considérant que les espèces rares sont les plus nombreuses dans le règne animal et jouent un rôle clé dans le fonctionnement des écosystèmes.

Mots clés: plasticité phénotypique, plasticité transgénérationnelle, fenêtre de tolérance, biogéographie, changement globaux, histoire de vie, métabolomique, biodiversité

ABSTRACT

Emissions of carbon dioxide from anthropogenic sources have reached unprecedented levels. As a consequence, marine metazoans will have to deal with higher sea surface temperature and ocean acidification over the next century. These changes will affect the life history and physiology of organisms, challenging marine species' ability to acclimate to a rapidly changing environment. Phenotypic plasticity is the first mechanism allowing individuals acclimation and has been linked to species' distribution and fundamental niche's size. In context of marine biodiversity conservation, it is important more than ever to understand individual's responses to global changes according to their distribution. The objective of my master thesis was to determine if rare and common species respond differently to global changes in a marine environment, and if their tolerance and capacity for transgenerational plasticity are different. To answer these questions, two species of the polychaete *Ophryotrocha*, one rare (*O. robusta*) and one common (*O. japonica*), were exposed to one control condition (C) and three climate change scenarios predicted for the year 2100 for two generations. These scenarios were: ocean acidification (OA), ocean warming (OW) and a combined scenario (OAW). Life history traits (growth, fecundity and eggs volume) were measured over a period of four months. Metabolomic analyses were also conducted to highlight molecular pattern (energetic metabolism) linked to changes observed in individual's traits. Results show that individuals of the rare species reached 100 % mortality within 49 days of exposure in both OW and OAW scenarios, before having the chance to reproduce. The metabolomics fingerprints also showed higher energy expenses in this species under high temperature condition. Under OA, reproductive success of both species was first affected with reductions of 33 to 75 % in the rare and common species respectively, and then recovered back to control condition in F2, even higher level in the rare species. On the other hand, the common species was little affected by the experimental conditions, with an egg volume reduction in F2 when exposed to OW. Thus, the rare species

has a narrower tolerance window as compared to the common species, and will not likely be able to cope with future climatic conditions. These results are an important for marine biodiversity conservation, considering that rare species are common in the animal kingdom and have key roles in ecosystem functions.

Key words: Phenotypic plasticity, transgenerational plasticity, tolerance window, biogeography, global changes, life history, metabolomics, biodiversity

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INTRODUCTION GÉNÉRALE

Les émissions de dioxyde de carbone (CO₂) d'origine anthropique ont augmenté considérablement depuis le début de l'ère industrielle, et sont l'une des causes principales du réchauffement global (Fabry et al., 2008). Les océans, qui absorbent près du tiers de la quantité de CO₂ émis (Sabine et al., 2004), subissent non seulement un réchauffement des eaux de surfaces, mais aussi des changements au niveau de la chimie des carbonates, menant à une augmentation d'ions H⁺ (Riebesell et al., 2010 ; Doney et al., 2009). Ce phénomène est connu sous le nom d'acidification des océans. Selon les prévisions pour l'an 2100, une réduction du pH de l'ordre de ~ 0.5 unités et une augmentation de la température de ~ 4°C sont attendues en se basant sur le scénario RCP 8.5 (Caldeira et Wickett, 2003 ; IPCC, 2014). Considérant la vitesse de ces changements et l'impact qu'ils auront sur l'homéostasie cellulaire, l'énergie métabolique et l'histoire de vie des organismes, la réponse des organismes marins à ces conditions futures est devenue une source de préoccupation en termes de conservation. Jusqu'à maintenant la recherche a porté surtout sur les effets des changements globaux sur les espèces marine calcifiantes, particulièrement dans le contexte d'acidification des océans (Dupont et al., 2013; Byrne et al., 2009). Par contre, il y a moins d'information quant aux effets de ces changements sur les espèces marines non-calcifiantes. Pourtant, ces dernières pourraient être tout autant affectées au niveau de leur traits physiologiques et de leur histoire de vie (e.g. Freitas et al., 2016).

Quelques études se sont penchées sur les effets de l'acidification sur la physiologie d'organismes marins, tels que les copépodes (e.g. Kurihara et Ishimatsu, 2008), les poissons (e.g. Frommel et al., 2010) et les communautés benthiques (e.g. Christen et al., 2013). Les méta-analyses combinant un grand nombre de groupes taxonomiques ont d'ailleurs démontrées que l'acidification a des effets sur la survie, la croissance et la reproduction des invertébrés (Kroeker et al., 2013; Ross et al., 2011). Ces impacts résultent de la réduction de

la différence de pH entre le milieu extracellulaire de l'organisme et son environnement, ce qui perturbe l'équilibre acido-basique et le potentiel redox des cellules et par le fait même le flux des voies métaboliques (Rokitta et *al.*, 2012). L'acidose interne résultant de l'accumulation de H^+ peut être tamponnée par le HCO_3^- acquis par la dissolution du $CaCO_3$ existant dans les coquilles des organismes calcifiants (Green et *al.*, 2004, Manno et *al.*, 2007; Orr et *al.*, 2005; Wheatly et Henry, 1992). Toutefois, faire de tel ajustements au HCO_3^- interne peut avoir des effets graves sur la régulation osmotique et ionique (Larsen et *al.*, 2014), ainsi que sur les fonctions neurologiques de l'organisme affectant le comportement des organismes (Nilsson et *al.*, 2012). Il a aussi été observé que les jeunes stades du cycle de vie sont plus sensibles à l'augmentation de la pCO_2 (Kroeker et *al.*, 2013), avec comme effets la diminution de la vitesse du développement embryonnaire, le prolongement de la durée du stade larvaire et la réduction de la taille des larves (Ross et *al.*, 2011). Par exemple, le ralentissement du taux métabolique chez les embryons des crabes porcelaine *Petrolisthes cinctipes* a d'ailleurs été observé (Carter et *al.*, 2013), ainsi qu'une réduction de la survie des juvéniles chez cette même espèce, sans toutefois affecter la survie au stade larvaire (Ceballos-Osuna et *al.*, 2013). De plus, la taille plus petite des larves peut réduire leur efficacité d'alimentation (Talmage et Gobler, 2010) et les réserves énergétiques peuvent être altérées.

Outre l'acidification, les organismes marins sont aussi confrontés à une augmentation de la température. La température a une forte influence sur l'histoire de vie des ectothermes, puisqu'elle agit directement sur la cinétique cellulaire et leur métabolisme (Angelitta, 2009; Cossins et Bowler, 1987; Hochachka et Somero, 2002; Hoffmann, 2005; Nylin et Gotthard, 1998). La température influence le développement, la survie et la taille à maturité, ce qui est communément observé chez les crustacés (Atkinson, 1995; Weiss et *al.*, 2009). Ces effets sont notamment engendrés par la dénaturation de protéines et l'inhibition d'enzymes, lorsque la température est en dehors de la gamme de tolérance de l'organisme, ce qui peut également entraîner une réduction du *fitness* des individus à long terme (Pörtner, 2001; Pörtner et Knust, 2007). Dans le cas des ectothermes, leur fenêtre de performance est généralement corrélée avec la température de leur environnement (Huey et Stevenson, 1979; Huey et Kingsolver, 1989; Tewksbury et *al.*, 2008). Ainsi dans un contexte de changements climatiques, les

ectothermes seront plus à risque et seront forcés de performer à des températures sous-optimales ou sur-optimales à leur fenêtre de tolérance thermique. Dans un contexte d'exposition multiple à des facteurs de stress environnementaux, il a été démontré, chez les crabes araignées (*Hyas araneus*) par exemple, que l'acidification réduise la fenêtre de tolérance thermique, influençant donc leur sensibilité au réchauffement (Walther et *al.*, 2009). Finalement, les changements climatiques devraient favoriser les espèces avec une fenêtre thermique plus large plutôt que celles avec des fenêtres plus étroites (Angelitta et *al.*, 2002; Pörtner et Farrell, 2008; Magozzi et Calosi, 2015).

Les espèces ont recours à trois mécanismes pour éviter l'extinction locale : la migration, la plasticité phénotypique et l'adaptation rapide (Hoffmann and Sgrò, 2011; Gonzalez et *al.*, 2013; Salinas et *al.*, 2013; Sunday et *al.*, 2014). Dans le cadre de ce mémoire, je m'intéresserai spécifiquement à la plasticité. Plusieurs définitions de la plasticité phénotypique existent et sont encore débattues, mais celle à laquelle je souscris est la définition de West-Eberhard (2003) qui stipule que la plasticité phénotypique est la capacité d'un même génotype à réagir à un changement environnemental en modifiant sa forme, son état, ses mouvements, ses activités ou sa physiologie, c'est-à-dire à exprimer plusieurs phénotypes. Dans le cas des espèces moins plastiques (possédant une capacité d'acclimation réduite), celles-ci seraient plus à risque à l'extinction locale, pouvant mener à une perte de biodiversité et une réduction des fonctions des écosystèmes océaniques (Solan et *al.*, 2004; Christen et *al.*, 2013; Kroeker et *al.*, 2011). Plusieurs études se sont intéressées à la plasticité phénotypique, mais ont mis l'emphasis sur ce mécanisme à l'intérieur d'une même génération (Nicotra et *al.*, 2010). Il est d'autant plus essentiel de comprendre ce phénomène à une échelle de temps plus grande et de l'appliquer sur plusieurs générations. West-Eberhard (2003) mentionne notamment que la plasticité phénotypique n'est pas seulement limitée au génotype, puisque la capacité de réponse d'un individu est d'abord influencée par l'expérience de ses parents dans l'environnement. Le concept de plasticité transgénérationnelle (PTG), dicte que les conditions environnementales expérimentées par les parents affectent les normes de réactions des descendants (Salinas et *al.*, 2013). L'interaction de l'environnement des parents, l'environnement des descendants et leurs

génotypes déterminent donc le phénotype des descendants (Salinas *et al.*, 2013). Ce nouveau concept de plasticité est au centre d'intérêt de plus en plus d'études (Romero-Rodriguez *et al.*, 2015; Gibbin *et al.*, 2015; Chakravarti *et al.*, 2016; Dupont *et al.*, 2013). Plusieurs d'entre elles ont d'ailleurs démontré que la PTG peut agir comme un tampon contre les effets négatifs de différents stress environnementaux, tels que le réchauffement des océans (Donelson *et al.*, 2012; Shama *et al.*, 2014a), l'acidification (Parker *et al.*, 2012; Allan *et al.*, 2014; Murray *et al.*, 2014; Pedersen *et al.*, 2014) et les changements de salinité (Renborg *et al.*, 2014; Jensen *et al.*, 2014). Dupont *et al.* (2013) ont d'ailleurs démontré que l'acclimatation à long terme des oursins de mer adultes *Strongylocentrotus droebachiensis* exacerbe les impacts négatifs de l'acidification sur les larves et les juvéniles. Ainsi, la transmission d'informations non-génétiques provenant de l'environnement des parents permet aux descendants de se développer en considérant ces conditions et de réagir de manière anticipée (Sunday *et al.*, 2014).

Le niveau de plasticité phénotypique non seulement varie entre les espèces, mais varierait aussi en fonction de leur biogéographie. En effet, les réponses des espèces marines face aux changements environnementaux vont dépendre de leur gamme de tolérances physiologiques, qui elles seraient directement liée à la taille de leur niche fondamentale (Spicer et Gaston, 1999; Gaston et Spicer, 2001). Plus spécifiquement, les espèces ayant une niche fondamentale plus large sont en mesure d'exploiter une plus grande variété de ressources, tendent à atteindre des densités locales plus grandes, peuvent faire face à un éventail de conditions environnementales plus large et occuper des aires géographiques plus grandes (espèces communes), comparativement aux espèces avec une niche plus étroite (espèces rares) (Brättstrom, 1968, 1970; Gaston et Spicer, 2001; Lomolino *et al.*, 2006). Il a d'ailleurs été démontré que les limites de tolérance de température varient entre les espèces à répartitions distinctes, conséquence de leur adaptation à leur régime environnemental, chez certaines espèces de coléoptères aquatiques (Calosi *et al.*, 2010), de crabes porcelaines (Stillman et Somero, 2000) et de poissons (*Platycephalus fuscus* et *Pseudocrenilabrus multicolor victoriae*) (Gannon *et al.*, 2014; McDonnell et Chapman, 2015). De plus, considérant que la plasticité comporte des coûts associés à l'homéostasie cellulaire et à

l'énergie métabolique (Parker *et al.*, 2012; Rodrigues-Romero *et al.*, 2015; Chakravarti *et al.*, 2016; Gibbin *et al.*, 2015), les organismes devront faire des compromis énergétiques pour répondre aux changements de conditions abiotiques, ce qui pourrait engendrer des impacts négatifs sur leur histoire de vie, notamment la survie, la croissance et la reproduction (Kroeker *et al.*, 2013). Il est alors fort probable que les espèces rares subissent des conséquences métaboliques plus importantes. Il ne faut pas non plus mettre de côté la possibilité que ces espèces aient pu être distribuées dans des gradients plus large, puis devenir rare pour d'autres raisons qu'une niche fondamentale restreinte. Le développement des connaissances sur la plasticité transgénérationnelle est donc essentiel pour comprendre l'évolution des espèces dans le contexte des changements globaux et s'assurer qu'elles ont un potentiel évolutif suffisamment grand pour éviter l'extinction.

Sachant que la plasticité est le premier mécanisme entrant en jeu pour permettre l'acclimatation (Hoffmann et Sgrò, 2011; Sunday *et al.*, 2014), il est intéressant de comparer les réponses d'espèces étroitement liées phylogénétiquement, mais à biogéographie différente. La comparaison entre les espèces rares et communes est d'autant plus utile dans un contexte de conservation de la biodiversité que la majorité des espèces ont des distributions restreintes et que peu sont largement distribuées (paradigme de la biodiversité) (Darwin, 1859; MacArthur, 1972; Gaston, 1996, 2003, 2009). Les investigations quant aux réponses des espèces face aux changements globaux dans un contexte biogéographique sont minimales, même absentes lorsqu'on y intègre la PTG. Il y a un clair besoin d'adresser des questions éco-évolutives en biologie des changements globaux, portant sur la biodiversité et les paradigmes biogéographiques, pour établir des modèles généraux de réponses de la biodiversité face aux changements globaux et aider à la prédiction des paradoxes de la biodiversité (Calosi *et al.*, 2016). Par conséquent, notre étude sera la première à déterminer si les espèces rares et communes (1) montrent différents niveaux de tolérance environnementale et (2) différents degrés de PTG, lorsque soumises à des expositions intra- et transgénérationnelle dans des conditions de réchauffement et d'acidification des océans, et (3) à évaluer les coûts énergétiques associés à ces réponses intra- et transgénérationnelle.

Pour répondre à ces questions, nous avons étudié deux espèces de polychètes marins du genre *Ophryotrocha* caractérisées par la même écologie mais des distributions géographiques différentes : une espèce rare (*O. robusta*) et une espèce commune (*O. japonica*). Plus spécifiquement, nous avons caractérisé leur histoire de vie (croissance, fécondité, volume des œufs) sous des expositions intra- et transgénérationnelle face à des conditions de température et de $p\text{CO}_2$ élevées qui imitent les prévisions de réchauffement et d'acidification des océans pour la fin du siècle, séparément et en combinaison. Finalement, nous avons investigué les coûts énergétiques associés aux réponses intra et transgénérationnelle en utilisant les analyses métabolomiques comme *proxy* pour l'activité aérobie/anaérobie et les réserves d'énergie (Verberk et *al.*, 2013 ; Viant et *al.*, 2003). Ceci nous a permis de vérifier si l'espèce rare montre une plus grande sensibilité en termes d'activités métaboliques (production d'énergie et réserves) que l'espèce commune, lorsqu'elles sont exposées au réchauffement des océans (RO), l'acidification des océans (AO) et à ces changements combinés (RAO).

CHAPITRE 1

Rarity and the global change: Tolerance and capacity for transgenerational plasticity to global changes in rare and common marine polychaetes.

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1.1 RESUME

La variation au sein de la répartition géographique des espèces est observée depuis longtemps, et il a été reconnu, qu'à l'intérieur d'un groupe taxonomique, la majorité des espèces ont une distribution géographique restreinte (espèce rare), alors que peu sont largement distribuée (espèce commune). L'explication la plus acceptée quant à la variation du niveau de biodiversité à travers le monde est la différence au niveau de la « niche » des espèces, qui ultimement définit l'amplitude de leur distribution géographique. La variation des traits physiologiques joue un rôle pivot dans la définition de la niche des espèces, et par le fait même leur distribution géographique. Ainsi les espèces rares auront de plus petites fenêtres de tolérance physiologique et des niveaux de plasticité plus faibles, faisant d'elles des espèces plus à risque à l'extinction locale dans le contexte des changements globaux. En

considérant que les espèces rares sont les plus nombreuses, leurs réponses face aux changements rapides en cours dans leur environnement vont avoir des impacts sur la diversité taxonomique au sein du règne animal, ainsi que sur la structure et les fonctions des futurs écosystèmes. Le réchauffement et l'acidification des océans vont avoir des répercussions sur un grand nombre de processus cellulaires. Par les changements au niveau du métabolisme énergétique, puis l'altération des traits d'histoire de vie, c'est toute la structure et le fonctionnement des écosystèmes qui seront bouleversé. La plasticité phénotypique peut rapidement aider à rétablir et maximiser les performances des organismes à l'intérieur d'une (intra-générationnelle) ou plusieurs générations (transgénérationnelle) lors de changements dans leur environnement. Par conséquent, le but de notre étude était d'investiguer si des espèces rare et commune répondent différemment aux scénarios de changements globaux en environnement marin, et si leur tolérance et capacité pour la plasticité transgénérationnelle sont différentes. Pour répondre à ces questions, deux espèces de polychètes du genre *Ophryotrocha*, une rare (*O. robusta*) et une commune (*O. japonica*), ont été exposées à quatre scénarios de changements globaux prédits pour la fin du siècle sur deux générations, soit des conditions de contrôle (C), d'acidification des océans (AO), de réchauffement des océans (RO) et un scénario combiné (RAO)). Les traits d'histoire de vie (croissance, fécondité, volume des œufs) ont été mesurés sur une période de quatre mois, après quoi les profils métabolomiques des individus ont été analysés pour mettre en évidence les métabolites liés aux changements des traits d'histoire de vie. En général, la température élevée a été le facteur principal affectant négativement les performances de l'espèce rare. L'augmentation de la température a eu un impact négatif sur le *fitness* et la survie de *O. robusta*. À l'opposé, le *fitness* de l'espèce commune, mesurés en termes de taux de survie et de capacité à contribuer à la prochaine génération, est demeuré plutôt élevé dans tous les scénarios et générations. L'espèce commune a été l'espèce la plus performante dans les différents scénarios, probablement par le bénéfice des mécanismes de plasticité intra et transgénérationnelle. Ce qui mène à la conclusion que l'espèce rare possède une fenêtre de tolérance plus étroite que l'espèce commune et qu'elle aura plus de difficulté à faire face aux futures conditions de changements climatiques. Ces résultats ont une portée importante au niveau de la

conservation de la biodiversité marine, considérant que les espèces rares sont communes dans le règne animal et ont un rôle clé en ce qui a trait aux fonctions des écosystèmes.

Mots clés : Distribution géographique, tolérance, changements globaux, plasticité transgénérationnelle, histoire de vie, métabolomique, biodiversité

1.2 ABSTRACT

Variation in the geographical range of species has long been observed, and it well established that most species have a restricted geographic distribution (rare species), whilst few are geographically widespread (common species). One explanation for the variation in biodiversity levels across the globe is that difference in species' 'niche' ultimately defines the breadth of their geographical distribution. Variation in physiological traits is considered to play a pivotal role in defining species niche, and thus their geographical distribution and local abundance, predicting that rare species will have smaller physiological tolerance windows and plasticity levels. Rare species' responses to rapid ongoing changes in their environment will then greatly define taxonomic diversity across the tree of life, as well as the functions of future ecosystems. Ocean warming and acidification will have impacts on a number of cellular processes. Through shifts in metabolic energy and alteration of life-history traits, all the ecosystem's structure and functions will be affected. Phenotypic plasticity can rapidly help re-establishing and maximising organisms' performances within and between generations when environmental changes occur. Consequently, the aim of our study was to determine if rare and common species respond differently to global changes scenarios in a marine environment, and if their tolerance and capacity for transgenerational plasticity are different. To answer this, two species of polychaete of the genus *Ophryotrocha*, one rare (*O. robusta*) and one common (*O. japonica*), were exposed to four different climate change scenarios predict to occur by the end of the century for two generations (control (C), ocean acidification (OA), ocean warming (OW) and a combined scenario (OAW)). Life history traits (growth, fecundity and eggs volume) were measured on a four months period, after which metabolomics profiles were analysed to highlight molecular pattern (energetic metabolism) linked to life history traits' changes. Overall, the high temperature was the main factor negatively affecting the rare species' performances. The increase in temperature impacted the physiology of *O. robusta*, ultimately affecting its reproduction and survival. On the other hand, the common species' reproduction, measured in terms of survival success and capacity to contribute to the next generation, remained quite high for all scenarios and

generations. The common species was also the most tolerant species under global change scenarios, likely benefiting from both within- and transgenerational plasticity mechanisms. Hence the rare species appear to possess a narrower tolerance window than the common species, and might will have more difficulties to cope with future climatic conditions. These results will likely have important impacts on marine biodiversity levels and conservation, considering that rare species are common in the animal kingdom and have key role in ecosystem functions.

Key words: Geographic distribution, tolerance, global changes, transgenerational plasticity, life history, metabolomics, biodiversity

1.3 INTRODUCTION

<< Evolution, extinction and dispersion: these are three fundamental processes in biogeography by which species respond to spatial/temporal dynamics and by which species geographic ranges are shaped >> (Lomolino *et al.*, 2006).

Variation in the geographical range size of species has long been observed (Darwin, 1859; Humboldt, 1808), and it has been recognized that, within a same taxon, most of the species have a restricted geographic distribution hereafter rare species, whilst few are geographically widespread hereafter common species. This defines the so-called ‘rarity-richness’ paradigm (MacArthur, 1972; Gaston, 1996, 2003, 2009) which states that rare species, even if they are not dominant in term of biomass in an assemblage, have key roles in the structure and function of this assemblage because they are ecologically different from the common species. The most accepted explanation for variation in biodiversity levels across the globe is that difference in species’ ‘niche’ (*sensu* Hutchinson 1957, 1978) ultimately defines the breadth of their geographical distribution. More specifically, the *Niche Breadth-Range Size Hypothesis* (see Brown 1984; Gaston *et al.* 2009) states that species with broader fundamental niches have larger range sizes, as they are able to cope with a wider range of environmental conditions, persist in more places and occupy a wider area than their narrow-niches relatives (Brättstrom, 1968; Gaston & Spicer, 2001). Variation in physiological traits is considered to play a pivotal role in defining species niche (Gaston & Spicer, 2001), and thus their geographical distribution, predicting that rare species will have smaller physiological tolerance windows and plasticity levels (Calosi *et al.*, 2008 - 2010; Gaston *et al.* 2009; Sunday *et al.* 2012; Spicer and Gaston, 1999; Tewksbury *et al.*, 2008), thus being more at risk to local extinction within the context of the global change (Calosi *et al.*, 2008). As a consequence, the ongoing and future high rates for species loss at a local, regional and global level have attracted renewed attention on the need to understand rare species tolerance to global changes (Barnosky, 2011; Wake, 2008; Ceballos, 2015).

Considering that rare species are most numerous across taxa, their responses to rapid ongoing changes in their environment will greatly define taxonomic diversity across the tree of life, as well as the structure and functions of future ecosystems (Solan et al., 2004; Gaston, 2012; Thomsen et al., 2017). The fate of marine biodiversity within the context of global changes is a source of great concern in marine environments (Worm et al., 2006; Cheung et al., 2009; Fabry et al. 2008; Wootton et al. 2008; Hale et al. 2011).

The increase in atmospheric CO₂ levels due to anthropogenically driven CO₂ emissions are causing the so called green-house effect, responsible for the current warming trends of Earth's atmosphere and oceans (IPPC, 2014; Sokolov et al. 2009). In addition, the absorption of atmospheric CO₂ by the world's oceans is causing an increase in seawater *p*CO₂, CO₂ and bicarbonate ions concentration as well as a reduction in seawater carbonate ions concentration and pH, a phenomenon called ocean acidification (Caldeira & Wickett 2003). These perturbations can have repercussions on a number of cellular processes, especially for ectotherms (Huey and Steevenson, 1979; Huey and Kingsolver, 1989; Melzer et al., 2009), and can, through shifts in metabolic energy and the alteration of life-history traits, lead to changes in the structure and functioning of communities and ecosystems.

The fundamental impacts of seawater warming on the developmental, life history and physiological functions of organisms, are in general well understood because of the prominent action of temperature on cellular kinetic and metabolism (Cossins and Bowler, 1987; Hochachka and Somero, 2002; Angiletta, 2009). Moreover, the link between species' thermal biology and their biogeography has been largely reported and reviewed in the literature (Pörtner and Knust 2007, Gaston et al 2009, Bozinovic et al. 2011; Sunday et al., 2012). Conversely, the current understanding of the biological implications of ocean acidification, mainly through the alteration of cellular homeostasis and energy metabolism, is less extended but rapidly increasing (Melzner et al., 2009; Kroeker et al. 2013; Ross et al., 2011; Wittmann and Pörtner, 2013). Much less is then known for ocean acidification as a potential driver for species' biogeography (c.f. Rosa and Seibel 2008; Maas et al. 2012;

Calosi et al. 2013a-b, 2017). In the context of global changes, a better understanding of the combined effects of ocean warming and acidification on marine organisms is needed to accurately predict the biogeographical consequences of this prominent interaction, and ultimately the fate of biodiversity patterns locally and globally. In addition, there is a clear need for global change biology studies addressing fundamental eco-evolutionary questions, such as those on fundamental biodiversity and biogeographical paradigms (Dupont and Pörtner, 2013), for establishing general patterns of biodiversity under rapid environmental changes (Lucey et al. 2016; Calosi et al. 2016, 2017). In turns, the fate of marine rare species in a rapidly changing ocean is still uncertain, in particularly as studies so far are not accounting for species' ability for transgenerational plasticity, a key driver of organism responses to environmental changes (Reusch, 2013; Munday et al., 2013; Sunday et al., 2014; Calosi et al., 2016).

Phenotypic plasticity is defined as the capacity of an individual to change its morphological features, movement, activity or physiology, or in other words, expressing different phenotypes in a new environment, whilst maintaining an unchanged genotype (West-Eberhard, 2003). Phenotypic plasticity can rapidly help re-establishing and maximising organisms' performances within and between generations when environmental changes occur (West-Eberhard, 2003; Ghalambor et al. 2006; Sunday et al. 2012; Calosi et al. 2016). When new environmental conditions set and persist for more than one generation as it is the case within the context of global changes, the parental environment can influence the progeny performances, a mechanism called transgenerational plasticity (TGP hereafter) (Bonduriaski et al, 2012; Marshall et al., 2008). TGP has been shown to buffer the negative impacts of global changes (e.g. Donelson et al., 2012; Shama et al., 2014a; Parker et al., 2012; Murray et al., 2014; Romero-Rodriguez et al., 2015; Chakravarti et al., 2016), but at this stage, this beneficial effect on organismal functions has not been linked to future species biogeography. Consequently, the aim of our study was that to investigate whether congeneric species with different geographical range, i.e. rare vs common species, show (1) different levels of tolerance and plasticity for physiological and life history traits within a generation,

(2) different capacity for transgenerational plasticity, and (3) different energetic costs associated with exposure to future global change scenarios. Our working hypothesis, based on the *Niche Breadth-Range Size Hypothesis* (Brown 1984; Gaston et al. 2009), is that rare species will be less tolerant and have a reduced capacity to adjust their phenotype through TGP, as well as higher metabolic costs, when compared to their common relatives.

To address these questions, we investigated the within and transgenerational responses to ocean warming and acidification of two phylogenetically closely-related marine polychaete species of the genus *Ophryotrocha*: one rare (*O. robusta*) and one common (*O. japonica*) (Paxton & Åkesson, 2010). We then characterized the life history (growth, fecundity and egg volume) within- (F1) and across generations (F1-F2) in worms exposed to elevated temperature and $p\text{CO}_2$ conditions mimicking ocean warming and acidification scenarios for the end of the century, in isolation and combination. The existence of inter-specific differences in the metabolomic profile was also employed to estimate aerobic/anaerobic activity and energy reserve content in the investigated species, in order to provide a mechanistic understanding of the metabolic and energetic costs associated to the within- and transgenerational exposure to the scenarios tested.

1.4 MATERIAL AND METHODS

Description of the studied species

The *Ophryotrocha* (Dorvellidae) species investigated in this study share similar morphology and ecology, but present different geographical distributions. These species are both sub-tidal, interstitial species (3-4 mm in length) found in the fouling communities that colonise the hard structures of harbour and shallow coastal waters environments (Prevedelli et al., 2005; Simonini et al., 2009a, b; Thornhill et al., 2009). Both species are gonochoric and reproduce semi-continuously along an extended reproductive period, laying the eggs in tubular masses that hatch with direct development (Prevedelli et al., 2006; Paxton and Åkesson, 2010). A newly hatched individual generates its first brood in a relatively short amount of time (approx. 47 d at 24 °C), and parental cares are provided for the whole duration of the development of the eggs. Despite these similarities, *O. japonica* possesses a wider geographical distribution than *O. robusta*. *Ophryotrocha japonica* is considered as a non-indigenous species, native to the Temperate Northern Pacific (Simonini 2009; Paxton & Åkesson 2005). It was recorded for the first time in Europe along the Mediterranean coastline in 1999 (Simonini 2002) and since then, it has successfully increase its occurrence, becoming the second most common *Ophryotrocha* species (Simonini et al 2009). On the other hand, *O. robusta* is a rare species endemic of the Mediterranean Sea with an ascertained recent distribution limited to three locations in Southern Sicily, Italy (Simonini et al., 2009).

Experimental preparation and design

The worms used in our investigation came from laboratory strains originated from approx. 40 individuals collected in 2008 in the harbour of Porto Empedocle (Sicily, Italy; 37°17'4''N, 13°31'3''E) for *O. robusta*, and 100 individuals collected in 2010 in the harbour of La Spezia (Liguria, Italy, 44° 6' 24" N, 9° 49' 45" E) for *O. japonica*. Both strains were maintained in laboratory, in control conditions (salinity: 35; temperature: 24 ° C; pH_{NBS} = 8.1; photoperiod L: D of 12: 12 h) for more than 20 generations.

In order to test if the rare and common species investigated showed different levels of sensitivity to scenarios mimicking ocean warming and acidification conditions predicted to occur by the end of the century (IPCC, 2014), individuals of each species were exposed for two generations to each scenario in isolation and combined, and their within- and transgenerational life-history and physiological responses were compared. A total of 48 breeding pairs were originally formed for each species using specimens taken from the laboratory strain (F0 generation), and each pair was isolated in separated wells for reproduction (Fig. 1). Once a sufficient amount of offspring (F1 generation) was obtained, 20 individuals were randomly taken from each of 12 broods, 21 d after hatching, and transferred to one of the four temperature/pH treatment combinations chosen to mimic current and future oceanic scenarios according to the IPCC (2014) predictions: (1) 24 ± 1 °C and pH 8.2 ± 0.1 (corresponding to 400 $\mu\text{atm } p\text{CO}_2$) as the control scenario (C), (2) 24 ± 1 °C and pH 7.7 ± 0.1 (corresponding to 1500 $\mu\text{atm } p\text{CO}_2$) as the ocean acidification scenario (OA), (3) 28 ± 1 °C and pH 8.2 ± 0.1 (corresponding to 400 $\mu\text{atm } p\text{CO}_2$) as the ocean warming scenario (OW), and (4) 28 ± 1 °C and pH 7.7 ± 0.1 (corresponding to 1500 $\mu\text{atm } p\text{CO}_2$) as the combined ocean acidification and warming scenario (OAW). The control temperature was representative of the average thermal conditions experienced by both species in their environment when collected, while the elevated temperature represented a + 4 °C scenario of OW predicted to occur by the end of the century in the Mediterranean Sea (RCP8.5; IPCC, 2014). The low pH/high $p\text{CO}_2$ values mimicked an OA scenario predicted for the end of the century (+ 600 μatm / - 0.4 pH unity; IPCC 2014).

Once the F1 individuals reached sexual maturity, 12 breeding pairs were formed *per* species *per* scenario by pairing females and males taken from different broods to prevent inbreeding depression (Paige, 2010; Massamba N'Siala *et al.*, 2011). Each pair was then isolated in a well of a six-well plate, and its first egg mass was used to obtain the next generation (F2). F2 individuals were followed until reaching sexual maturity and paired as described for the F1, maintaining them in the same conditions as their parents (Fig. 1).

Experimental system

The experimental scenarios were generated and maintained using a carbon dioxide (CO₂) and temperature manipulation system, similar to the one described in Chakravarti *et al.* (2016). The system was composed of two large containers (60 cm x 30 cm x 15 cm, vol. 13 L) for each temperature condition, half-filled with tap water and heated with an aquaria heater (Theo 11702, Hydor, Sacramento, CA, USA). Each container, used as water baths, was equipped with a water pump ensuring the homogenous distribution of the heat (Koralia nano 900, Hydor) and a Perspex sheet limiting the heat dissipation through evaporation.

Each container contained four airtight experimental aquaria (Sterilite, 26 cm x 18 cm x 17 cm, vol. 4.5 L), two perfused with CO₂-enriched air to reach the low pH/ high *p*CO₂ condition, and two perfused with ambient air to maintain control pH/*p*CO₂ conditions. For both conditions, ambient air was supplied to the aquaria by an air pump (Mistral 4000, Aqua Medic, Bissendorf, Germany) and bathed in 1M sodium hydroxide (NaOH) solution to remove the excess of CO₂ and reach a pH of 8.1. For the low pH condition, the air perfusing the aquaria was then enriched with pure CO₂ with a constant flow checked by a CO₂ analyzer (LI-840A, Li-Cor, Lincoln, NE, USA).

Each aquaria contained four, six-well culture plates (Costar, VWR, Radnor, PA, USA), two for each species, and each plate housed three F1 and three F2 breeding pairs and their corresponding broods ($n = 3$ pairs/broods *per* plate, 12 replicate pairs/broods total *per* scenario, species and generation, Fig. 1). Plates were filled with artificial sea water (salinity 35) made by dissolving artificial sea salt (Reef Crystals, Instant Ocean, Blacksburg, VA, USA) in distilled water. They were covered with a breathable sealing film (Aeraseal, Alpha Laboratories Ltd, Eastleigh, UK), which allowed gas exchanges whilst limiting evaporation, thus avoiding large salinity and temperature fluctuations. The sea water in the wells was changed every 2 d, using sea water kept in the same conditions (in each aquaria) in spare beakers. Worms were fed on the same day by adding ~ 1 mL of minced spinach in sea water (300 g L⁻¹) (Romero-Rodriguez *et al.*, 2015), after having removed the uneaten food.

F1 individuals were transferred to the elevated temperature (28 °C) through a gradual pre-exposure of 1 °C h⁻¹ from the control temperature as in Massamba-N'Siala *et al.* (2012, 2014). Exposure to the low pH/high *p*CO₂ condition was achieved by transferring F1 individuals in the system and gradually diffusing the air mixed with CO₂ in the corresponding experimental aquaria. Temperature, pH and salinity were measured every 2 d in two wells, selected randomly, and one beaker (which contained new seawater) *per* aquaria. The mean physico-chemical parameters of the sea water measured and calculated for each scenario are shown in Table 1 and the methods used to measure and/or calculate them are in Suppl. Mat.

Determination of life-history traits

The female survival rate was calculated as the number of remaining females after 49 d of exposure, divided by the number of females at the beginning of the experiment *100. This period corresponded to the period after which 100 % of *O. robusta* females died in OW and OAW scenarios.

Female size was measured at each spawning event of each individual, and these data was used to calculate female growth rates as the number of chaetigers (i.e segments bearing bristles) added daily from hatching until they reach their maximum size, i.e. the maximum amount of chaetigers counted during the duration of the experiment (around 60 d exposure) (Massamba-N'Siala *et al.*, 2012). Degeneration events, defined as the loss of chaetigers during an individual development, were also recorded.

The number of degeneration events and the percentage of pairs producing viable offspring was used as proxy for female reproductive success. In addition, females' fecundity was measured as the number of eggs laid at the second reproductive event (first egg mass used to obtain F2 generation). Pictures of the second egg masses were taken under low-medium (x 40) and higher (x 100) magnification, maximum 24 h after its deposition, using a microscope (Laborlux S, Leitz, Oberkochen, Germany) equipped with a digital camera (OMAX A-3530U, Kent, WA, USA) (Romero-Rodriguez *et al.* 2015). x40 pictures were used to count the number of eggs as the x100 ones were analysed to determine the egg

volume, a proxy for egg quality (Allen and Marshall, 2014). The longest and shortest axes of 10 eggs *per* mass were then measured using imageJ program (Schneider et *al.*, 2012), and egg volume calculated using the formula:

$$(Eq. 1) \quad Egg\ mass\ volume = \frac{4}{3} * \pi * A^2 * B$$

where A is the short radius and B the long radius (Simonini and Prevedelli, 2003).

Tableau 1 : Mean \pm SE of the seawater physic-chemical parameters measured [salinity, temperature, pH_{NBS}, Dissolve Inorganic Carbon (DIC)] and calculated [CO₂ partial pressure (pCO₂), Total Alkalinity (TA), carbonate and bicarbonate ions concentrations (HCO₃⁻ and CO₃²⁻), calcite and aragonite saturation (Ω_{cal} and Ω_{ara})] for each scenario. Capital letters represent significant differences between treatments.

Scenario	Salinity	pH _{NBS}	Temperature (°C)	DIC ($\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$)	TA ^a ($\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$)	pCO ₂ (μatm)	[HCO ₃ ⁻] ^a ($\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$)	[CO ₃ ²⁻] ^a ($\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$)	Ω_{cal} ^a	Ω_{ara} ^a
Control	34.48 ^A	8.16 ^A	24.29 ^A	2326.80 ^A	2681.60 ^A	436.08 ^A	2048.28 ^A	266.28 ^A	6.48 ^A	4.27 ^A
	± 0.85	± 0.14	± 1.10	± 6.84	± 8.76	± 2.24	± 5.35	± 1.91	± 0.05	± 0.03
	n = 376	n = 683	n = 705	n = 32	n = 32	n = 32	n = 32	n = 32	n = 32	n = 32
Ocean warming	35.38 ^A	8.10 ^A	28.20 ^B	2208.01 ^C	2583.56 ^A	433.61 ^A	1921.10 ^A	275.60 ^A	6.70 ^A	4.45 ^A
	± 3.36	$\pm .17$	± 0.89	± 16.09	± 17.07	± 7.96	± 14.98	± 3.13	± 0.08	± 0.05
	n = 379	n = 675	n = 681	n = 20	n = 20	n = 20	n = 20	n = 20	n = 20	n = 20
Ocean acidification	33.43 ^B	7.67 ^B	24.37 ^A	2595.39 ^D	2686.93 ^A	1645.61 ^B	2449.12 ^B	100.13 ^B	2.44 ^B	1.60 ^B
	± 0.23	± 0.13	± 1.02	± 8.57	± 8.61	± 10.58	± 8.15	± 0.59	± 0.02	± 0.01
	n = 391	n = 698	n = 704	n = 31	n = 31	n = 31	n = 31	n = 31	n = 31	n = 31
Ocean acidification and warming	35.20 ^B	7.69 ^B	28.18 ^B	2525.08 ^B	2568.85 ^A	2141.30 ^B	2371.09 ^B	82.99 ^B	2.04 ^B	1.38 ^B
	± 2.53	± 0.13	± 1.14	± 17.92	± 17.76	± 65.04	± 16.43	± 1.61	± 0.04	± 0.12
	n = 390	n = 697	n = 686	n = 20	n = 20	n = 20	n = 20	n = 20	n = 20	n = 20

^a Calculated by CO₂SYS program (Lewis and Wallace, 1998) with constants from Mehrbach *et al.* (1973) and corrected by Dickson and Millero (1987) and KSO₄ constants from Dickson (1990).

Determination of metabolomic fingerprinting

In order to characterise the energetic metabolism and fatty acid composition of the rare and common species examined here, and thus provide a mechanistic understanding of the life-history responses measured, breeding pairs (male and female individuals) from each scenario, generations and species were individually flash frozen in 1.5 mL centrifugal PP tube at the end of the experiment, and maintained at -80 °C. Since none of the *O. robusta* breeding pairs survived the exposure to the OW and OAW scenarios, metabolomics analyses were performed on the few individuals remaining from the original groups exposed (see fig. 1 in the supplementary material). This group correspond to the 20 worms transferred in each wells of the plates before the formation of the breeding pairs (*see the experimental design above*, Fig. 1). These individuals were then kept in OW and OAW conditions for the same amount of time (max. of 49 d in OW and 37 d in OAW) than the breeding pairs. As these individuals were in the same conditions and did not reproduce also in OW and OAW conditions, no distinction was made between “breeders” and “non-breeders” in the analysis.

Extractions of key targeted metabolites, were carried out following the method described by Lu *et al.* (2006), originally tested on the bacterium *Salmonella enterica*, and modified to be applied on small marine organisms such as polychaetes, particularly to prevent the formation of salt adducts when injecting marine organism samples. For this, a fast “cold quenching salt-eliminating” extraction was developed, using an ammonium carbonate as an extraction solution. In more details, 4.8 g of ammonium carbonate (trace metals-grade 99.999 %; Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA) was dissolved in 1 L of Nanopure water (18.0 Ω , Barnstead infinity system, Lake Balboa, CA, USA) to create a 50 mM ammonium carbonate solution. Then, 0.4 mL of this solution was added to 1.6 mL of Nanopure water and 8 mL of methanol in order to produce a final 8:2 methanol: water-10 mM ammonium extraction solution.

In order to allow for a sensitive detection of the targeted metabolites, specifically chosen for their key role in energy metabolism and cellular function, the method was developed using different mix of standards. The amino acid standard was obtained from Phenomenex (Torrance,

CA, USA) and the free fatty-acid standard was created by hydrolyzing a FAME 37 standard (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA). To do so, 250 μL of FAME 37 was evaporated under nitrogen in a 1.5 mL PP centrifugal tube. 50 μL of KOH 6.25 % (w/v) in Nanopure water was then added and the tube was heated for 30 min at 60 °C. 950 μL of the extraction solution was then added and the tube was centrifuged at 8 000 rpm. The supernatant was then transferred to HPLC amber vial and was stored in -80 °C. For all the other metabolites standards, obtained from Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, MO, USA), individual metabolite solutions were created by precisely weighing each standard into clear HPLC vials to produce 1 mg mL⁻¹ solution in the extraction solution. A final working solution, containing all targeted metabolites, was then created by pooling 1000 μL of the amino acid standard, 2000 μL of the free fatty acid standard, 500 μL of glucose and 50 μL of each other individual metabolite solution. Extraction solution was added to the mix to reach a final volume of 10 mL. From this final working solution, a serial dilution 1:1 in the extraction solvent was conducted to create 10 different metabolite concentration solutions for the calibration curve.

Once the method was developed and tested for the targeted metabolites, metabolomics analyses were realised on the polychaete samples. Each centrifugal PP tube (1.5 mL) containing a single frozen polychaete was bathed in liquid nitrogen (to avoid thawing and thus metabolites degradation during the manipulations). Then 250 μL of the extraction solution, kept continuously at -80 °C, was added in the tube and a potter pestle (blue pre-sterilize, Axygen, Tewksbury, MA, USA) was used to crush the sample. Once homogenised with the potter pestle, the sample was sonicated for 3 s (Sonication bath, model Symphony, VWR, West Chester, PA, USA) and then centrifuged at 11 000 rpm for 3 min at 4 °C (centrifuge 5430R, Eppendorf, Hamburg, Germany). Then, 225 μL of the supernatant was transferred in a 250 μL glass insert inside an amber HPLC vial (Wheaton, New Jersey, USA). The vial was then injected in a liquid chromatography system (Accela, Thermo Electron Corporation, San Jose, CA, USA) equipped with a 150 mm X 2 mm Luna C5 guard column for Phenomenex (Torrance, CA, USA). The system was adjusted with the following parameters: autosampler temperature set at 4 °C, a column temperature set at 20 °C, an injection volume of 25 μL and a solvent flow rate of 200 $\mu\text{L min}^{-1}$. LCMS-grade acetonitrile (OmniSolv, EMD Chemical, Gibbstown, NJ, USA) obtained from VWR International (West

Chester, PA, USA) was used for the mobile phases. A 50 mM of acetonitrile (ACN) in carbonate water (90:10) was used for mobile phase A whilst mobile phase B was composed of ACN: 5 mM ammonium carbonate water solution. The gradient program started at 2 % of mobile phase A over 2 min and reach 98 % of mobile phase A at 6 minutes until the minute 15. The initial conditions of 2 % of mobile phase A was re-established at 17 minutes and was followed by a conditioning of 13 min for a total run time of 30 min. The identification of metabolites previously separated was then achieved on an Orbitrap LTQ Discovery high-resolution mass spectrometer (HRMS) (Thermo Electron Corporation, San Jose, CA, USA), sequentially in a positive and negative mode. The electrospray ionization spray voltage was of 5000 V in positive mode and of 3200 V in negative mode. Nitrogen was used as sheath gas at 55 arbitrary units with a capillary temperature of 325 °C and the scan range was from 60 to 1000 m/z for both modes.

HRMS data were then analysed on Xcalibur 2.0 software (Thermo Electron Corporation, San Jose, CA, USA) using a 10 ppm mass tolerance. For each targeted metabolite, a calibration curve was created using the 10 diluted working solution (see above) and the best linear, linear log-log or quadratic log-log relationship was chosen to build the curve. Metabolite concentration for all the samples were then assessed from the area of the working standard solution by extract ion integration.

Statistical analyses

The effects of ‘species’ (fixed), climate change ‘scenario’ (fixed), ‘generation’ (fixed) and their interactions on each life-history trait (growth rate, fecundity, eggs volume), were tested using general linear models (GLM's) with ‘container’ as a random factor nested within ‘temperature’, and ‘aquaria’ as random factor nested within ‘pH/pCO₂’. The factor ‘container’ was found to have a non-significant effect on any of the variable, while ‘aquaria’ had a significant effect only on ‘fecundity’ (minimum $F_{5, 39} = 4.168$; $p = 0.01$). Removing this factor did not change the patterns of significance of the main factors, thus the ‘aquaria’ effect was considered marginal and it was removed from the analysis (Melatunan *et al.*, 2013). As no random factor were significant, three and two-ways ANOVA analyses were performed to measure the effects of the fixed factors. Body size was used as a covariate for data related to fecundity and egg volume.

Since F1 individuals of the rare species did not survive to reproduce in the high temperature scenarios (OW and OWA), and hence the F2 was not obtained, the analyses of the life-history traits (growth rate, fecundity and egg volume) were run in three different steps:

- 1) rare vs common species within-generational responses (F1) to all global change drivers, using ‘scenario’ (C, OA, OW, OAW) and ‘species’ (*O. robusta*, *O. japonica*) as factors.
- 2) rare vs common species transgenerational responses (F2) to ocean acidification, using ‘generation’ (F1, F2), ‘scenario’ (C, OA) and ‘species’ (*O. robusta*, *O. japonica*) as factors.
- 3) the common species’ transgenerational responses to all global change drivers, using ‘generation’ (F1, F2) and ‘scenario’ (C, OA, OW, OAW) as factors.

Most of the data did not meet the assumption for normality as raw data, or following log10 or square root transformations, and variances were heterogonous. However, since our experimental design included four scenarios with a minimum of 12 breeding pairs per scenario per generation per species, we assumed that the ANOVA design employed was tolerant to deviation from the assumptions of normality and heteroscedasticity (Sokal & Rohlf 1995; Underwood, 1997). Pairwise comparisons within scenarios, species or generations were performed whenever a significant interaction or main effects were found, using the 95 % confidence interval test calculated for estimated marginal means.

Percentage of survival, number of degeneration events and percentage of pairs producing viable offspring were tested according to step 1) and 2) using a χ^2 test.

To explore multivariate patterns of metabolite variation among ‘scenario’ (C, OA, OW, OAW), ‘species’ (*O. robusta*, *O. japonica*) and ‘generation’ (F1, F2), a principal component analysis (PCA) based on correlation matrix was run, using the package FactoMineR (Husson *et al.*, 2017). A multivariate variance analysis (MANOVA) was performed using ‘scenario’, ‘species’ and ‘generation’ as fixed factors. Different trials were run to select the one maximizing explication percentage of the variation. All statistical analyses were run with the 3.2.2 R program version and the graphic interface R commander using a significant threshold of $\alpha = 0.05$ (RStudio Team, 2015).

1.5 RESULTS

The results and statistical outputs of the life history and metabolomics profiles responses for the rare and common *Ophryotrocha* species are presented in Fig. 2-8/Table 2; 4-5 and Fig. 9-11/Table A-1, respectively. Pair-wise comparisons within scenarios, species or generations are provided in Table A2 of the Appendix. All values shown in the text are mean \pm SE.

Within-generational (F1) comparison of the rare and common species performance under the ocean change scenarios

Females survival

In global warming (OW) and ocean acidification*global warming (OAW) scenarios, the rare species *O. robusta* reached 100 % of mortality after 49 and 37 d of exposure, respectively. This percentage was 33 % in the ocean acidification (OA) scenario, this value being significantly lower than that measured in OW and OAW ($\chi^2 = 10.56$; $P = 0.005$; Table 5; Fig. 2-3). All *O. japonica* females (100 %) survived the exposure period in all scenarios (Fig. 2-3).

Growth rates

Degeneration events, defined as the loss of chaetigers during an individual development, occurred at a higher incidence in *O. robusta* compared to *O. japonica* ($\chi^2 = 11.28$, $p = 0.01$; Table 5), being observed in 25 % of the females exposed to OA and OW, and 50 % of the females exposed to OAW. Conversely, reduction in size was observed in *O. japonica* only in OW and OAW in 8 % of the females in both scenarios (Fig. 4).

Ophryotrocha robusta grew significantly faster (0.171 ± 0.016 chaetiger d⁻¹) when compared to *O. japonica* in all scenarios (0.141 ± 0.003 chaetiger d⁻¹) ('species': $F_{1,95} = 4.58$; $p = 0.01$, Table 4.1a). No difference between C condition and OA, OW and OAW exposure were observed in terms of growth for both species (Table 4).

Reproductive success

Ophryotrocha robusta did not reproduced during the entire exposure to the OW and OAW scenarios, whilst in these scenarios *O. japonica* possessed the same reproductive success than in

control condition (C). In the OA scenario, all pairs of *O. japonica* produced viable offspring, while only 75 % of *O. robusta* pairs reproduced in F1 (Fig. 5). In this scenario, both fecundity and parental investment in the offspring were similar between the two species (species*scenario: minimum $F_{3, 93} = 8.13$, $P = 8.04e^{-05}$; Table 3.1b and c; Fig. 6). While the reproductive output decreased by 33 and 75 % in OA compared to C scenario for *O. robusta* and *O. japonica*, the egg volume did not change in both species when compared to C condition (Fig. 6).

Transgenerational comparison of the rare and common species under the ocean acidification scenario

Females survival

Ophryotrocha robusta survival at F2 was lower than that measured for F1 females during the 49 d exposure, with only 43 % of survival instead of 58 % in F1 ($\chi^2 = 9.58$; $p = 0.01$; Table 5). By contrast, all *O. japonica* F2 females survived the OA exposure.

Growth rates

As observed for the F1, *O. robusta* F2 females grew faster (0.244 ± 0.002 chaetiger d⁻¹) than *O. japonica* (0.163 ± 0.006 chaetiger d⁻¹) in C and OA scenarios (species: $F_{1,92} = 4.70$; $p = 0.01$, Table 3.2a). Moreover, F2 females of both species showed a tendency to grow faster than F1 ones in the same scenarios (*O. robusta*: 0.177 ± 0.023 chaetiger d⁻¹; *O. japonica*: 0.149 ± 0.003 chaetiger d⁻¹) (generation: $F_{1,92} = 5.45$; $p = 0.02$, Table 4.2a).

Reproductive success

In the OA condition, all *O. japonica* pairs produced viable offspring even in the F2, while only 57 % of the *O. robusta* pairs reproduced in F2 (Fig. 6). Reproductive performance under the OA scenario differed significantly between the two species and across generations, both in terms of fecundity and egg volume (species*scenario*generation': minimum $F_{1,486} = 5.70$, $p = 0.02$ $F_{1,486} = 5.70$, $p = 0.02$; Table 4.2b and c). In particular, the trend described for the F1 exposure under OA was reversed during the F2 exposure. Fecundity recovered back to control values in *O. japonica* F2, while increased in *O. robusta* to values that were significantly higher than those recorded in *O. japonica*. Furthermore, fecundity of *O. robusta* F2 was 187 % higher in OA condition than in C condition (Fig. 6a).

Similarly, the trend observed for the volume of the eggs for F1 was different than the one observed for F2 for both species. Specifically, in the OA scenario, *O. japonica* significantly decreased (- 28 %) the investment in the eggs compared to C scenario, showing smaller eggs than *O. robusta* in OA scenario (Fig. 6b).

Transgenerational responses of *O. japonica* under the global change scenario

Growth rates

The growth rate of *O. japonica* females increased significantly between the F1 and the F2 exposure, with no significant differences among global change scenarios (generation: $F_{1,67} = 5.08$, $p = 0.01$; Table 4.3a, Fig. 7a).

Reproductive success

In all the scenarios tested, all *O. japonica* pairs produced viable offspring (Fig. 5), but F2 females were consistently more fecund than F1 ones (generation: $F_{1,94} = 17.82$, $p = 6.0e^{-05}$; Table 4.3b, Fig. 7b). In addition, egg volume decreased significantly between F1 and F2 generation in all the conditions, but this decrease was more important in OW condition (scenario: $F_{1,528} = 10.82$; $p < 0.0001$; generation: $F_{1,528} = 205.84$; $p < 0.0001$; Table 4.3c, Fig. 8).

Metabolomics profile comparison of rare and common species

The PCA plot for the metabolomics profile of *O. robusta*-F1 exposure under all scenarios, of *O. japonica*/*O. robusta*-F1 exposure under OW and OAW scenarios and *O. japonica*-F1/F2 exposure under all global change scenarios tested, are shown in Fig. 9-11. As breeding pairs of the rare species did not survive to OW and OAW exposure, the few remaining individuals from the original group in these conditions were taken for metabolomics analyses. Unfortunately, we did not manage to do the same for F2 individuals exposed to OA, where no one survived until the end of the exposure for this species in this condition.

The metabolomic profile of *O. robusta* during the within-generational exposure show a distinction between C-OA scenarios and OW-OAW scenarios. The first and second axes explained 65 % of the total variation (DIM. 1 = 47.4 %; DIM. 2 = 18 %), and a significant 'scenario' effect

was found (MANOVA: $F_{1,10} = 2.9$, $p = 0.008$; Table A3; Fig. 9). The separation of these two groups was mainly driven by an increase in fatty acid reserve content and a decrease in molecules involved in energy metabolism along the first and second axes, respectively, under OW and OAW (Fig. 10). In more detail, AMP and fatty acid (C16:3, C18:2, C18:1, C20:1, C18:3) reserves were higher in OW and OAW, while a higher production of ATP, ADP and glucose was observed in C and OA conditions.

Furthermore, *O. robusta* and *O. japonica* differed in the metabolomics profile after the F1 exposure to OW and OAW (MANOVA: $F_{3,12} = 20.30$, $p = 4.64 \times 10^{-5}$; Table A3; Fig. 9). The first axis explained 50.3 % of the variation according to fatty acid composition, while the second axis explained 21.4 %, according to metabolites involved in energetic metabolism (Fig. 10). In particular, the fatty acids C18:2, C18:1, C20:1, and C18:3 were more present in *O. robusta*, while ATP, NAD and aspartate were in higher concentration in *O. japonica*.

Finally, significant 'generation' and 'scenario' effects (MANOVA: minimum $F_{3,32} = 1.76$, $p = 0.017$) differentiated *O. japonica* metabolic profile along generations, with the first two axes explaining 69.44 % of the variation (Table A3). During F1 exposure, the metabolite composition in C differed from that in OA, OW and OAW. In global change scenarios individuals showed higher levels of fatty acids reserve (C16:3, C18:2, C18:1, C20:1, C18:3), fumarate, malate and AMP (DM. 1 = 52.61 %), and lower concentrations of ATP, NAD, ADP, aspartate, glutamate and glucose (DIM. 2 = 16.83 %) (Fig. 10). No difference between control and global change scenarios were observed for the F2 (Fig. 11).

1.6 DISCUSSION

We provide the first empirical test for the likely impact of combined ocean warming and acidification of Darwinian-fitness-related life history traits on rare and common marine species' over a transgenerational exposure. In addition, we provide a mechanistic underpinning for the patterns of sensitivity observed via metabolomics profiling. In turns, we show that the rare polychaete species *Ophryotrocha O. robusta* is significantly less tolerant to ocean warming (OW) and acidification (OA) both in isolation and combined (OAW), when compared to its common relative *O. japonica*. Overall, elevated temperature represents the main factor negatively affecting the rare species' fitness, levels tested being lethal before the species is able to produce a viable progeny. Finally, transgenerational responses appear to play an important role in defining species ability to buffer the negative impacts of global changes. Our results support the hypotheses that rare species will be more vulnerable, and at greater risk of decline under complex global change scenario, this leading at important communities and ecosystems' consequences.

The severe effect of ocean warming on rare species

Future OW and OAW represent sub-optimal conditions that will be detrimental for all main functions of the rare species. Individuals of this species do not survive past 49 d of exposure to OW conditions, and most importantly, they do not produce any progeny. In addition, under OAW, 100 % mortality is reached within 37 d, indicating the presence of a synergistic effect between OW and OA. Even growth is negatively affected, as confirmed by a marked increase in degeneration events. Temperature increase is known to accelerate the metabolic rates up to optimal levels, beyond which the thermal stability and function of structural proteins and enzymes are compromised. This is followed by physiological failure, via the accumulation of thermal-related damages, which sets the upper thermal tolerance limits of marine ectotherms (Hochachka and Somero, 2002). The metabolomic profiles of the rare species under OW and OAW support this physiological breakdown. In fact, worms exposed to OW and OAW conditions experience a decrease in energy available; as indicated by the reduction in [ATP], a key metabolite in cellular energetics, and [NAD], a cofactor implicated in the redox reactions of electron transport, when compared to the profiles of individuals exposed to C and OA conditions. More in general, a number

of molecules involved in the cell energy metabolism (and in particular Krebs's) cycle show a significant reduction, this evidence suggesting that approaching the end of our exposure time the rare species switches from an aerobic to an anaerobic metabolism, shutting down the most sensitive and demanding functions, such as reproduction and growth, while entering a phase of irreversible physiological damage that leads ultimately to death. In our experiment, in most individuals kept at elevated temperature we have observed that the physiological impairment we report is accompanied by the cessation of feeding activities, evidenced by the lack of visible food in worms' intestines, and the gradual deterioration of the worms' physical conditions. This is highlighted by the abnormal increase in the volume of the coelomatic cavity of certain individuals. Differently, all individuals of the common species survive and produce a viable progeny under OW and OAW. They also lay larger eggs, which suggests an increase in the parental investment in the new environments. Differences in the metabolomic responses of rare and common species help explaining trends in life-history traits. In fact, contrary to what was observed for the rare species, the common species increases its energy production in F1 when exposed to global change scenarios: as shown by an increase in [ATP], [NAD] and [aspartate], and a decrease in its lipid content. These changes suggest that the energy metabolism is likely enhanced in the common species, this enabling to maximise important functions at a higher level of organisation. This said the decrease in lipids content we report may have suggested the existence of longer-term costs, which may translate in multigenerational fitness costs (Shama et al. 2014b, Gibbin et al. 2017). However, in the F2 of the common species lipids content is comparable between C and OW conditions.

Altogether, our results support the hypothesis that species differences in their geographic distribution may be in part explained by differences in their physiology (Spicer and Gaston 1999, Calosi et al. 2008, 2010), which scales up to life history traits and ultimately fitness (Sibly and Calow, 1986).

Transgenerational plasticity can help species to cope with global change, but it is no silver bullet

Ocean acidification is the only global change scenario where the rare species produces a viable progeny. However, even under this condition, it shows higher sensitivities compared to its common relative across the two generations tested. After 49 d of exposure in F1, in fact, the rare

species shows 40 % of mortality, and around 25 and 40 % of surviving females do not reproduce at F1 and F2, respectively. Differently, no mortality or reproductive failure is detected in the common species under both generations. Furthermore, the two species show similar levels of within-generational plasticity at F1 for all traits, but different transgenerational responses. For example, the transgenerational exposure to OA results in a reduction of growth rates in the rare species compared to C conditions, coupled with an increase of degeneration events, whilst no plasticity was shown in both generations in the common species. It has been widely documented that OA can negatively impact growth through non-beneficial plastic responses, as the increase in energetic requirements needed to maintain homeostasis affects organisms' ability to maintain and repair its cellular systems, and thus ultimately impairs growth (Stumpp et al. 2012, Melzner et al. 2009). The effect of OA on growth rates has been observed within one generation of exposure, when this includes early life stages. This said, evidence also exists for the partial or total restoration of growth performance after two generations of exposure to OA (Chakravarti et al., 2016; Miller, Watsin, McComirck and Munday, 2013; Parker et al. 2012). In our study, however, the transgenerational exposure to OA has negative implications for growth for the rare species, possibly because it is accompanied by a marked recovery of fecundity levels, which had decreased during F1, and by an increase in the parental investment in the offspring. Even the common species' fecundity benefits from the transgenerational exposure to OA, as the reduction in the eggs output observed at F1 is fully recovered in the following generation, but at the expense of reduced eggs' volume. The re-allocation of the energy budget among different functions through life-history trade-offs appears to be the direct consequence of the observed transgenerational responses. In the rare species, trade-offs occurring under OA conditions may account for energy to be diverted from growth to increased costs for reproduction under more stressful conditions (Pistevos et al. 2011).

No trade-offs between life-history traits are detected in the common species, which is the most tolerant to all global change scenario tested across both generations. In this species, only a generation effect is observed for survival, growth rates and fecundity, suggesting a transgenerational adjustment that is independent from the scenarios we tested. Eggs' volume is the only trait positively affected by acute exposure to OW and OAW as described previously, but this beneficial plastic response disappears after two generations of exposure to OA and OAW, and even

reversed under OW conditions. Interestingly, this pattern is accompanied by an energy trade-off between fatty acid reserves preservation and energy production across generations: the former decreasing and the latter increasing under global change scenarios when compared to C conditions. In the F2, differences in the metabolites concentrations between global changes and C scenarios are no longer evident, suggesting that individuals adjust their metabolism to cope with elevated temperatures and/or pCO₂ after two generations of exposure. Our results are in contrast with other studies performed for example in marine sticklebacks (e.g. Shama and Wegner, 2014a; Shama et al., 2014b, 2016), the polychaetes *Ophryotrocha labronica* (Chakravarti et al., 2016) and juvenile damselfish (Donelson et al., 2012), where these (common) species showed negative effect of high temperature on the aerobic metabolism, hatching success or growth rate following acute exposure, after which a complete compensation was observed following transgenerational exposure.

Altogether our results confirm that within and transgenerational plasticity in both life-history and physiological performances may help ectothermic species in coping with global change drivers. This said the presence of trade-offs and energy costs associated to such plasticity points to the fact that these mechanisms do not appear to be ubiquitous between rare and common species (Donelson et al., 2012; Shama et al., 2014a, 2016; Parker et al., 2012; Rodriguez-Romero et al., 2016; Chakravarti et al. 2016, Gibbin et al. 2017).

1.7 CONCLUSION

We provide first empirical evidence that future predicted ocean change conditions will likely further narrow the environmental envelope within which rare ectothermic species can thrive, thus limiting their geographical distribution, more than they will do for common species. Our findings bear important implications in terms of species' future biogeography, and more generally the sensitivity of rare and common taxa to the ongoing ocean change. Our findings support the prediction that rare species are at much greater extinction risk under future ocean change scenarios when compared to their common relatives (Calosi et al. 2018). Our results have potential implications for the impact of the global change on marine biodiversity. Considering that rare species are most numerous across taxa (Gaston et al. 2003), and that their functional role in the within ecosystem is increasingly recognised (Mouillot et al. 2013; Leitão et al. 2016), their decline in response to rapid ongoing environmental changes will have important repercussions for the structure, dynamics and functioning of marine ecosystems locally and globally (Solan et al., 2004; Gaston, 2012; Thomsen et al., 2017). Finally, our study provides the first empirical indications that when considering transgenerational consequences of global changes in species with different biogeography theoretical expectations are broadly upheld, although we obtain more refined pictures of their sensitivity by including them. This grants a rationale to explore further the link between species' environmental tolerance, transgenerational plasticity and biogeography.

1.8 ACKNOWLEDGMENT

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Tableau 2 : Life history traits of *Ophryotrocha japonica* and *O. robusta*, exposed to ocean warming and acidification in isolation and combination. Total number of breeding pairs, % female produced viable offspring, % female survival till 49 days of exposure, growth rate, fecundity and eggs volume are provided averaged by species, scenario and generation. Mean values (\pm SE). « X » means there are no data for those sections as *O. robusta* did not survive in all scenarios.

Scenario	Species	Generation	# Breeding pairs	% female produced viable offspring	% female survival till 49 days of exposure	Growth rate (#chaetiers/day)	Fecundity (# eggs)	Eggs volume (mm ³)
Control	<i>O. japonica</i>	F1	12	100.00	100.00	$-0.0003 \pm .03$	164.08 ± 2.87	$0.17 \pm .0004$
		F2	12	100.00	100.00	$0.130 \pm .004$	70.73 ± 5.79	$0.11 \pm .002$
	<i>O. robusta</i>	F1	12	100.00	100.00	$0.11 \pm .01$	206.00 ± 6.86	$0.12 \pm .0005$
		F2	11	90.91	90.91	$0.17 \pm .01$	98.70 ± 14.91	$0.02 \pm .0001$
Ocean acidification	<i>O. japonica</i>	F1	12	100.00	100.00	$0.040 \pm .003$	109.85 ± 5.50	$0.20 \pm .0006$
		F2	12	100.00	100.00	$0.100 \pm .004$	95.61 ± 3.56	$0.09 \pm .0007$
	<i>O. robusta</i>	F1	12	75.00	58.33	$0.11 \pm .01$	50.56 ± 11.61	$0.07 \pm .0004$
		F2	7	57.14	71.43	$0.16 \pm .01$	284.25 ± 13.32	$0.02 \pm .0001$
Ocean warming	<i>O. japonica</i>	F1	12	91.67	100.00	$0.08 \pm .01$	111.82 ± 1.55	$0.23 \pm .001$
		F2	11	100.00	90.91	$0.15 \pm .01$	63.27 ± 3.79	$0.05 \pm .0006$
	<i>O. robusta</i>	F1	12	0.00	0.00	$0.07 \pm .01$	X	X
		F2	0	X	X	X	X	X
Ocean acidification and warming	<i>O. japonica</i>	F1	12	83.33	100.00	$0.08 \pm .01$	107.10 ± 2.11	$0.20 \pm .001$
		F2	12	100.00	100.00	$0.07 \pm .01$	50.64 ± 0.19	$0.10 \pm .0006$
	<i>O. robusta</i>	F1	12	0.00	0.00	$-0.09 \pm .02$	X	X
		F2	0	X	X	X	X	X

Tableau 3 : Normalized values (% difference with Control scenario) of life history traits of *O. japonica* and *O. robusta*, exposed to ocean warming and acidification in isolation and combination. Total number of breeding pairs, % female survival till 49 days of exposure, growth rate, fecundity and eggs volume are provided averaged by species, scenario and generation. Mean values (\pm SE). « X » means there are no data for those sections as *O. robusta* did not survive in all scenarios.

Scenario	Species	Generation	# Breeding pairs	% female survival till 49 days of exposure	Growth rate (#chaetiers/day)	Fecundity (# eggs)	Eggs volume (mm ³)
Ocean acidification	<i>O. japonica</i>	F1	12	0.00	+0.66 \pm 0.24	-33.05 \pm 3.35	+9.81 \pm 0.58
		F2	12	0.00	-0.52 \pm 0.63	+35.20 \pm 5.04	-28.28 \pm 0.60
	<i>O. robusta</i>	F1	12	-42.00	-0.86 \pm 0.53	-75.46 \pm 5.63	-0.02 \pm 0.04
		F2	7	-72.72	-8.89 \pm 0.42	+187.99 \pm 13.49	+2.01 \pm 0.38
Ocean warming	<i>O. japonica</i>	F1	12	0.00	-1.54 \pm 0.14	-31.85 \pm 0.95	+51.71 \pm 0.36
		F2	11	-9.10	+4.89 \pm 0.89	-10.53 \pm 5.35	-44.37 \pm 0.40
	<i>O. robusta</i>	F1	12	-100.00	-0.80 \pm 0.66	X	X
		F2	0	X	X	X	X
Ocean acidification and warming	<i>O. japonica</i>	F1	12	0.00	-1.15 \pm 0.029	-34.72 \pm 1.28	+44.95 \pm 0.31
		F2	12	0.00	+5.94 \pm 1.21	-28.39 \pm 4.93	+17.56 \pm 0.49
	<i>O. robusta</i>	F1	12	-100.00	-2.56 \pm 0.97	X	X
		F2	0	X	X	X	X

Tableau 4 : Effects of the within- (F1) and transgenerational (F1-F2) exposure to ocean acidification (OA), ocean warming (OW) and their combination (OAW), on *O. robusta* and *O. japonica* life history traits (raw data). Degrees of freedom (df), mean of square (MS), F-ratio (Pseudo-F) and probability level (p) are provided. Bold number means significant *P*.

	df	MS	Pseudo-F	P		df	MS	Pseudo-F	P
1) Within-generational comparison of <i>O. robusta</i> and <i>O. japonica</i> exposed to C, OA, OW and OAW									
a) Growth rate									
Species	2	0.03	4.58	0.010					
Scenario	3	0.002	0.29	0.836					
Species*Scenario	3	0.001	0.12	0.950					
Residuals	90	0.01							
Total	98								
b) Fecundity					c) Egg Volume				
Size	1	198 899	13.21	> 0.001	Size	1	0.02	6.47	0.01
Species	1	14 432	4.20	0.04	Species	1	0.06	23.25	> 0.001
Scenario	3	69 553	20.25	> 0.001	Scenario	3	0.09	32.56	> 0.001
Species*Scenario	3	27 919	8.13	> 0.001	Species*Scenario	3	0.02	8.36	> 0.001
Residuals	85	3 434			Residuals	380	0.002		
Total	93				Total	388			
	df	MS	Pseudo-F	P		df	MS	Pseudo-F	P

2) Transgenerational comparison of *O. robusta* and *O. japonica* exposed to a C and OA

a) Growth rate

Species	1	0.03	4.70	0.01
Generation	1	0.04	5.45	0.02
Species*Generation	1	0.02	2.59	0.11
Residuals	89	0.01		
Total	92			

b) Fecundity

Size	11	20289	2.90	0.003
Species	1	32216	4.61	0.04
Scenario	1	2091	0.30	0.59
Generation	1	84	0.01	0.91
Species*Scenario	1	393	0.06	0.81
Species*Generation	1	11354	1.62	0.21
Scenario*Generation	1	104512	14.94	> 0.001
Species*Scenario*Generation	1	51796	7.41	0.01
Residuals	69	6994		
Total	87			

c) Eggs volume

Size	1	0.015	5.11	0.02
Species	1	0.042	14.16	> 0.001
Scenario	1	0.015	4.95	0.03
Generation	1	0.607	204.13	> 0.001
Species*Scenario	1	0.004	1.46	0.23
Species*Generation	1	0.0001	0.05	0.83
Scenario*Generation	1	0.018	6.08	0.01
Species*Scenario*Generation	1	0.017	5.70	0.02
Residuals	478	0.003		
Total	486			

	df	MS	Pseudo-F	P		df	MS	Pseudo-F	P
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3) Transgenerational responses of *O. japonica* to C, OA, OW and OAW

a) Growth rate

Scenario	1	0.15	0.40	0.86
Generation	1	0.04	5.08	0.01
Residuals	65	0.01		
Total	67			

b) Fecundity

Size	1	69137	32.89	> 0.001
Scenario	1	12375	1.58	0.20
Generation	1	37454	17.82	> 0.001
Residuals	92			
Total	95			

c) Eggs volume

Size	5	0.01	5.17	> 0.001
Scenario	3	0.03	10.82	> 0.001
Generation	1	1.21	205.84	> 0.001
Residuals	519	0.003		
Total	528			

Tableau 5 : χ^2 results for the within- (F1) and transgenerational (F1-F2) responses of *O. robusta* and *O. japonica* (degeneration events and female percentage produced viable offsprings) under an ocean acidification (OA), ocean warming (OW) and their combination (OAW). Degrees of freedom (df), χ - squared value and probability level (p) are provided. Bold number mean significant p-value.

1) Within-generational comparison of <i>O. robusta</i> and <i>O. japonica</i> exposed to C, OA, OW and OAW			
a) Degeneration events		b) % female produced viable offspring	
χ^2	11.28	χ^2	121.97
df	3	df	3
<i>p</i>	0.01	<i>p</i>	> 0.001
c) # females survived after 49 days exposure			
χ^2	10.56		
df	2		
<i>p</i>	0.005		
2) Transgenerational comparison of <i>O. robusta</i> and <i>O. japonica</i> exposed to a C and OA			
a) Degeneration events		b) % female produced viable offspring	
χ^2	15.46	χ^2	7.59
df	3	df	3
<i>p</i>	0.003	<i>p</i>	0.06
c) # females survived after 49 days exposure			
χ^2	9.58		
df	2		
<i>p</i>	0.01		
3) Transgenerational responses of <i>O. japonica</i> to C, OA, OW and OAW			
a) Degeneration events		b) % females produced viable offspring	
χ^2	95.23	χ^2	1.07
df	3	df	3
<i>p</i>	> 0.001	<i>p</i>	0.78

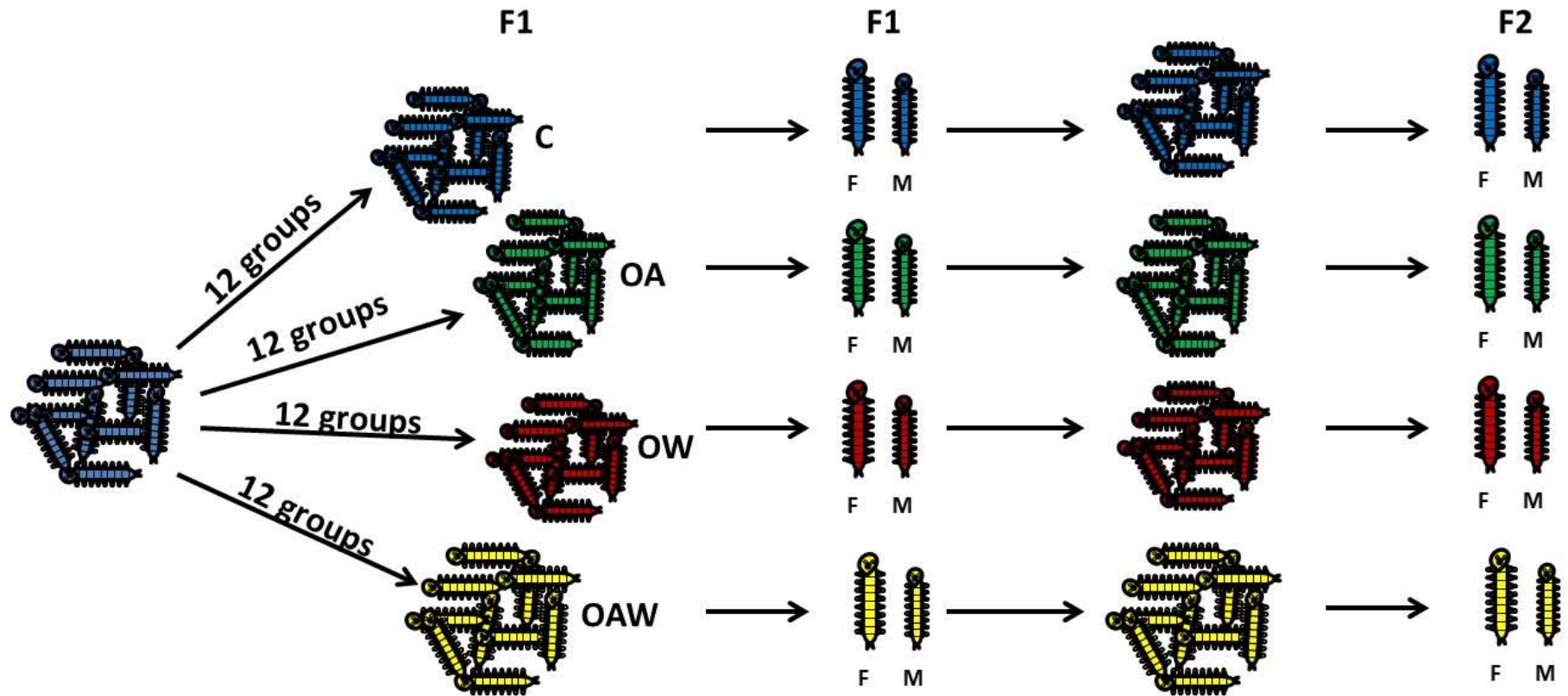


Figure 1 : Experimental design. Individuals of *Ophryotrocha robusta* and *O. japonica* were exposed to control, C (24 °C and pH 8.2, blue), ocean acidification, OA, (24 °C and pH 7.7, green), ocean warming, OW (28 °C and pH 8.2, red), and the combine scenario, OAW (28 °C and pH 7.7, yellow) for two generations (F1-F2). For each species and scenario, pairs of females (F) and males (M) (n = 12 pairs) were created at each generation for the life-history and physiological measurements.

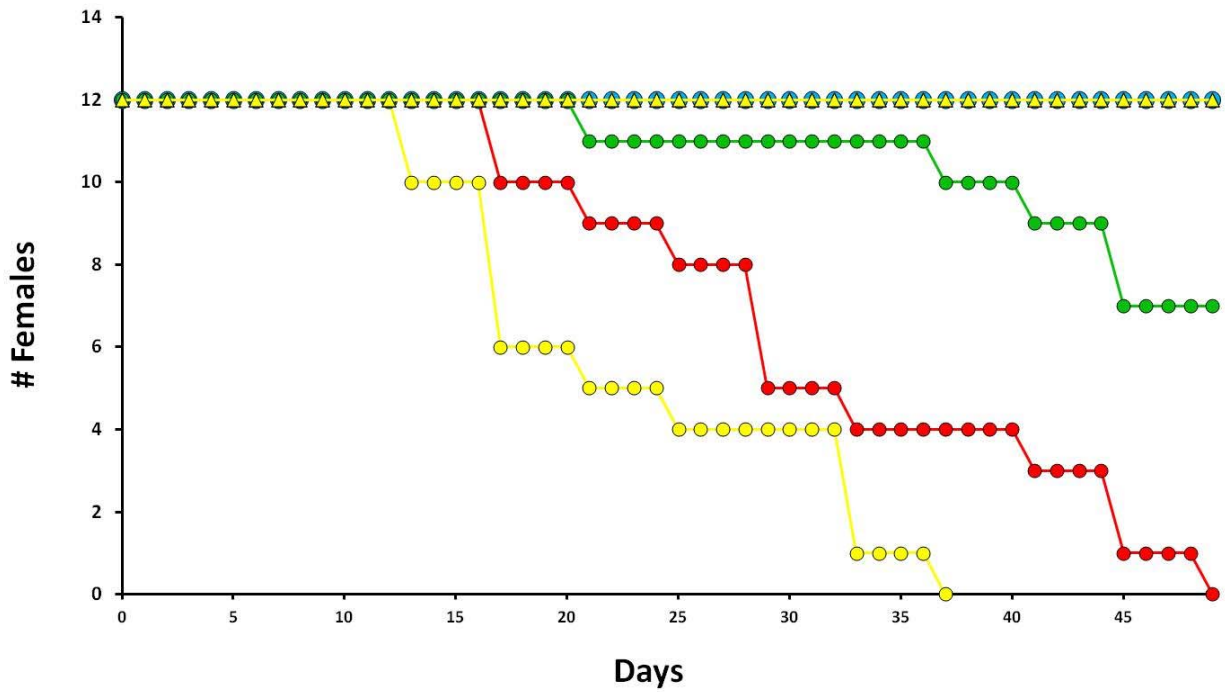


Figure 2: Cumulated mortality curves of F1 individuals of *O. robusta* (rare species; circles) and *O. japonica* (common species; triangles) along a 49 d exposure to control (blue), ocean acidification (green) and ocean warming (red) scenarios, in isolation and combined (yellow). The blue curve and all curves of *O. japonica* are not really visible on the figure as there are all place at the number of 12 females for the entire period.

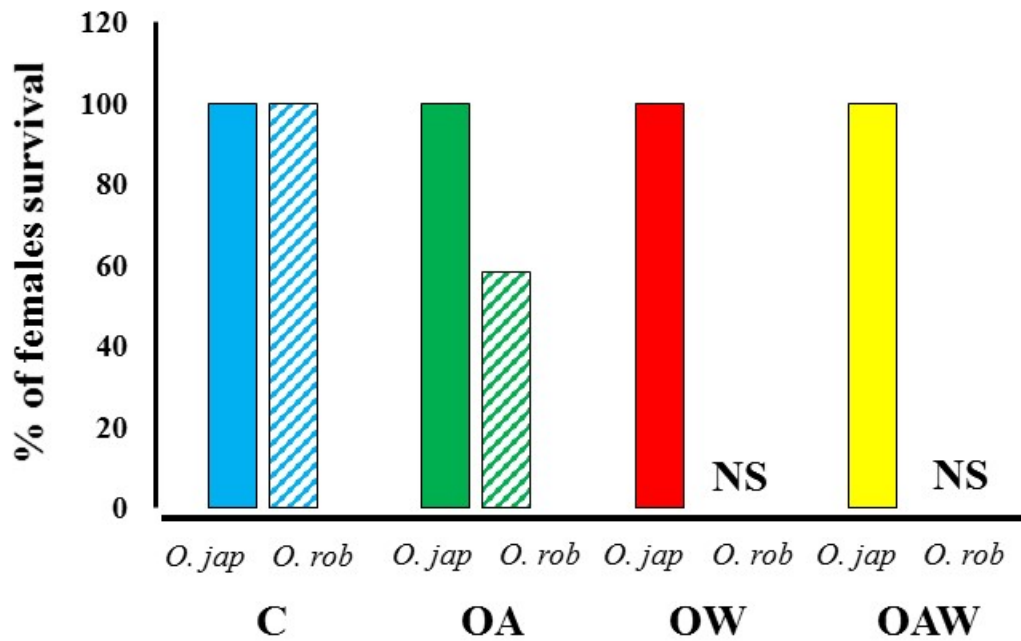


Figure 3: F1 survival rates for females exposed to ocean acidification (OA, green) and ocean warming (OW, red) scenarios, in isolation and combined (OAW, yellow) after 49 days exposure, on *O. japonica* (*O. jap* plain bars, common species) and *O. robusta* (*O. rob* striped bars, rare species) survival in a 49 d exposure. NS indicates “no survival”.

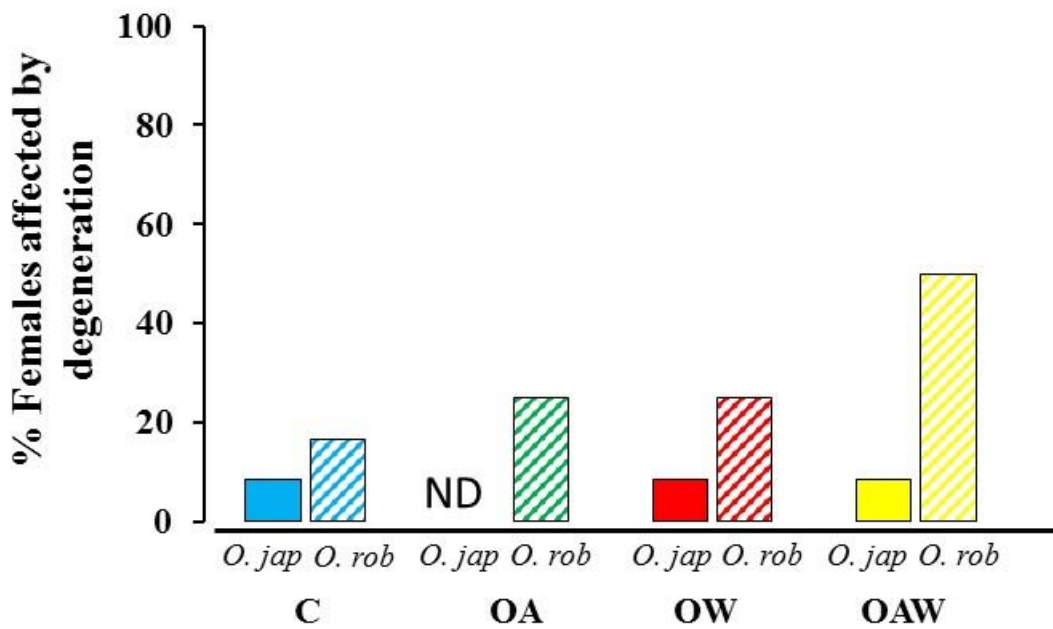


Figure 4 : F1 occurrence of degeneration events in females of *O. robusta* (striped bars; rare species) and *O. japonica* (plain bars; common species) under the F1 exposure to the control (C, blue), ocean acidification (OA, green) and ocean warming (OW, red) scenarios, in isolation and combined (OAW, yellow). ND indicates “no degeneration”.

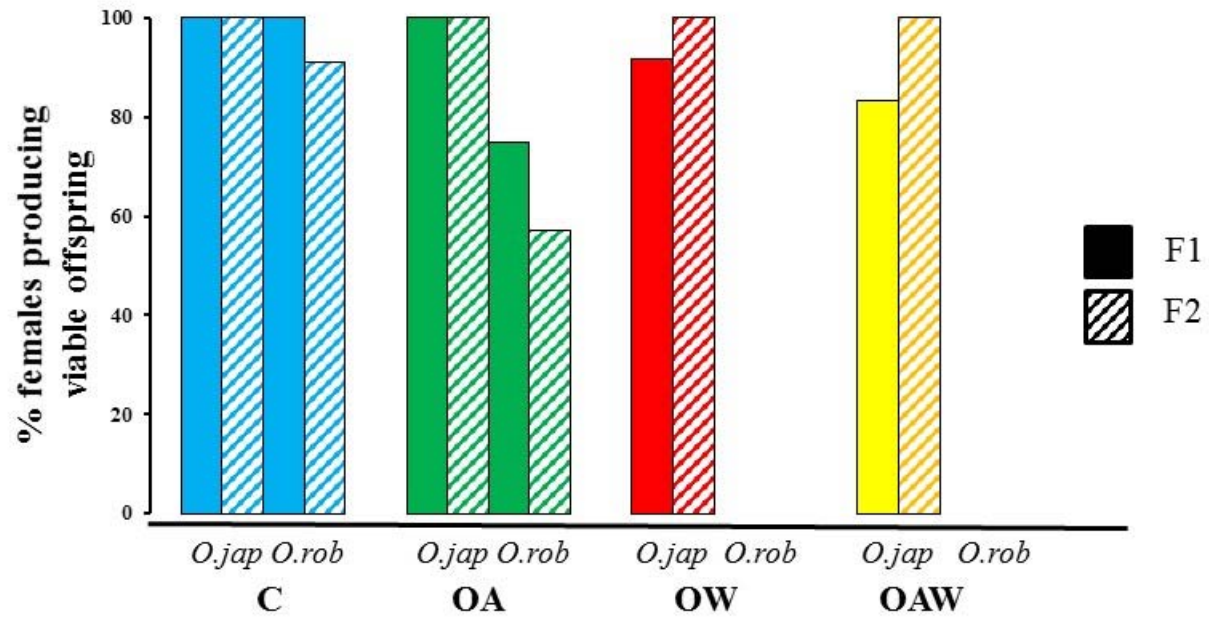


Figure 5. Percentage of *O. robusta* and *O. japonica* breeding pairs that produced viable offspring under control (C), ocean acidification (OA) and ocean warming (OW, red), in isolation and combined (OAW, yellow) during the F1 (plain bars) and F2 (striped bars) exposure. NS indicates “no survival”

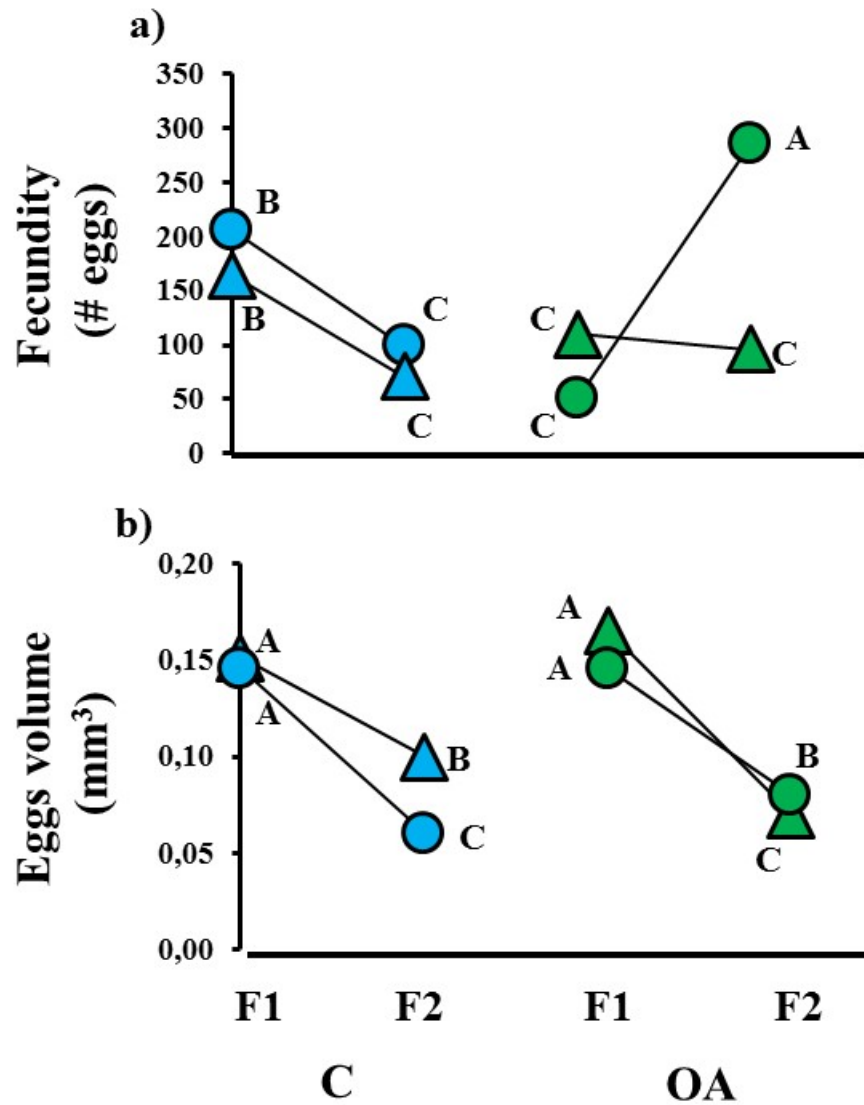


Figure 6: Transgenerational effects of OA (green) scenario on a) fecundity (number of eggs), b) eggs volume (mm³) in *O. japonica* (triangle, common species) and *O. robusta* (circle, rare species). Traits showing a significant species*scenario*generation effect are plotted. Reaction norms are plotted using the C scenario (blue) as reference. Significant differences (according to pairwise test) among scenarios, species and generations are showed by different capital letters ($P < 0.05$).

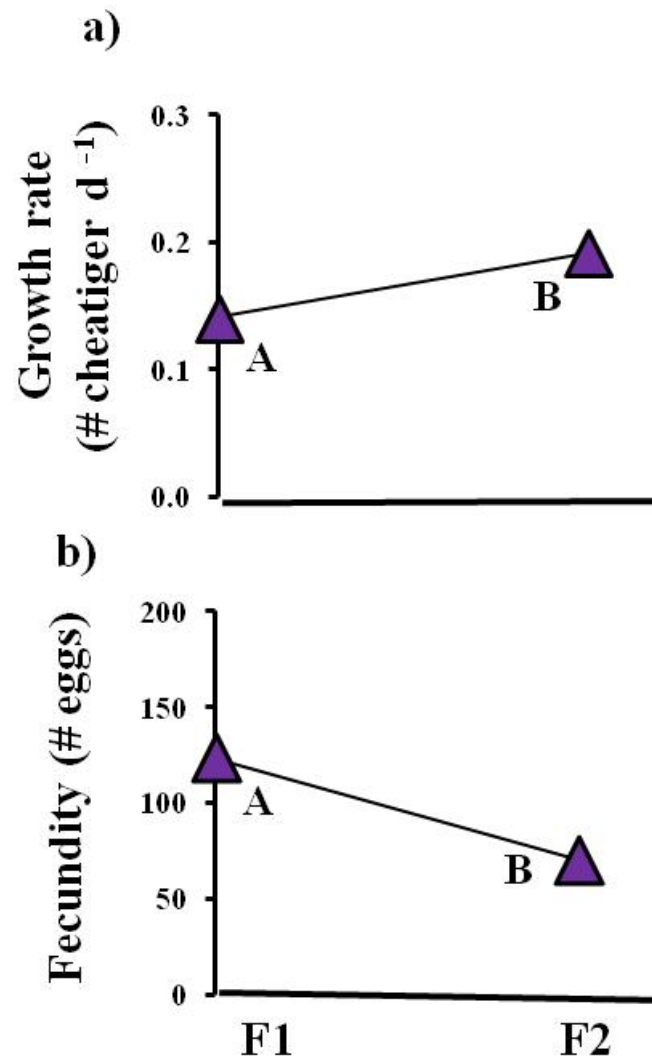


Figure 7: Transgenerational effects of global change on a) growth rate (number of cheaters d^{-1}) and b) fecundity (number of eggs) in *O. japonica* (all data pooled). Significant differences (according to pairwise test) among generations are shown by different capital letters ($P < 0.05$).

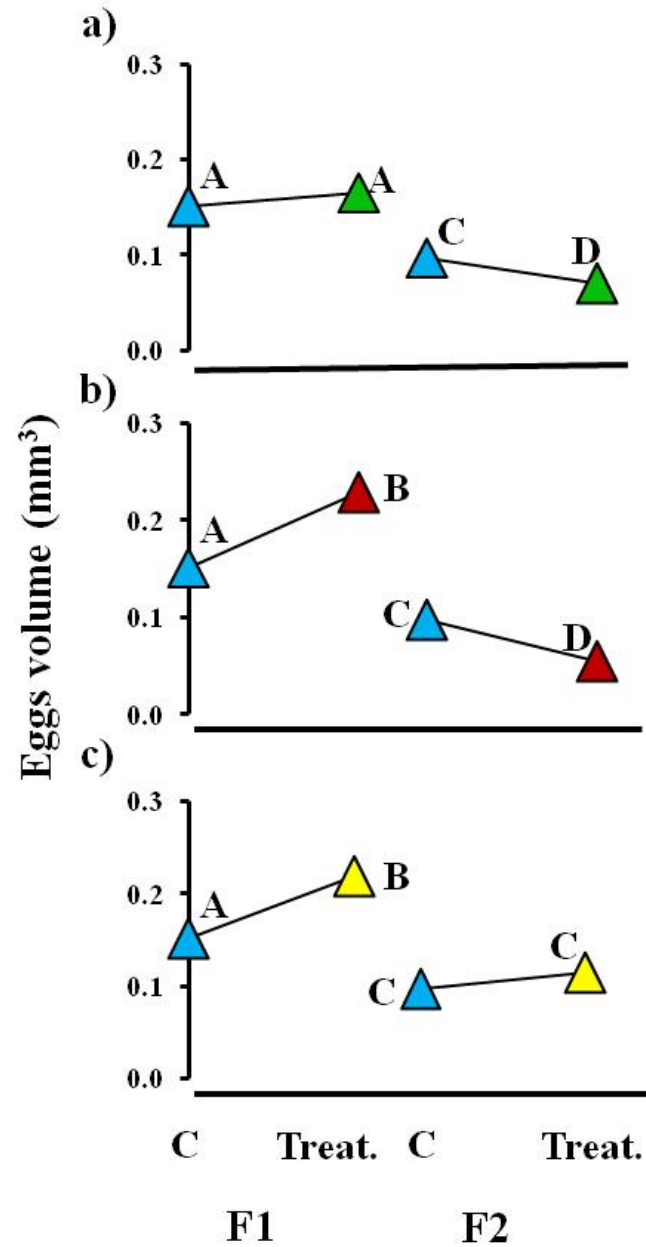


Figure 8: Transgenerational effects of global change on egg volume under a) ocean acidification (OA, green), b) ocean warming (OW, red) and c) combined (OAW, yellow) compare to control condition (C, blue) in *O. japonica*. Significant differences (according to pairwise test) among generations are shown by different capital letters ($P < 0.05$).

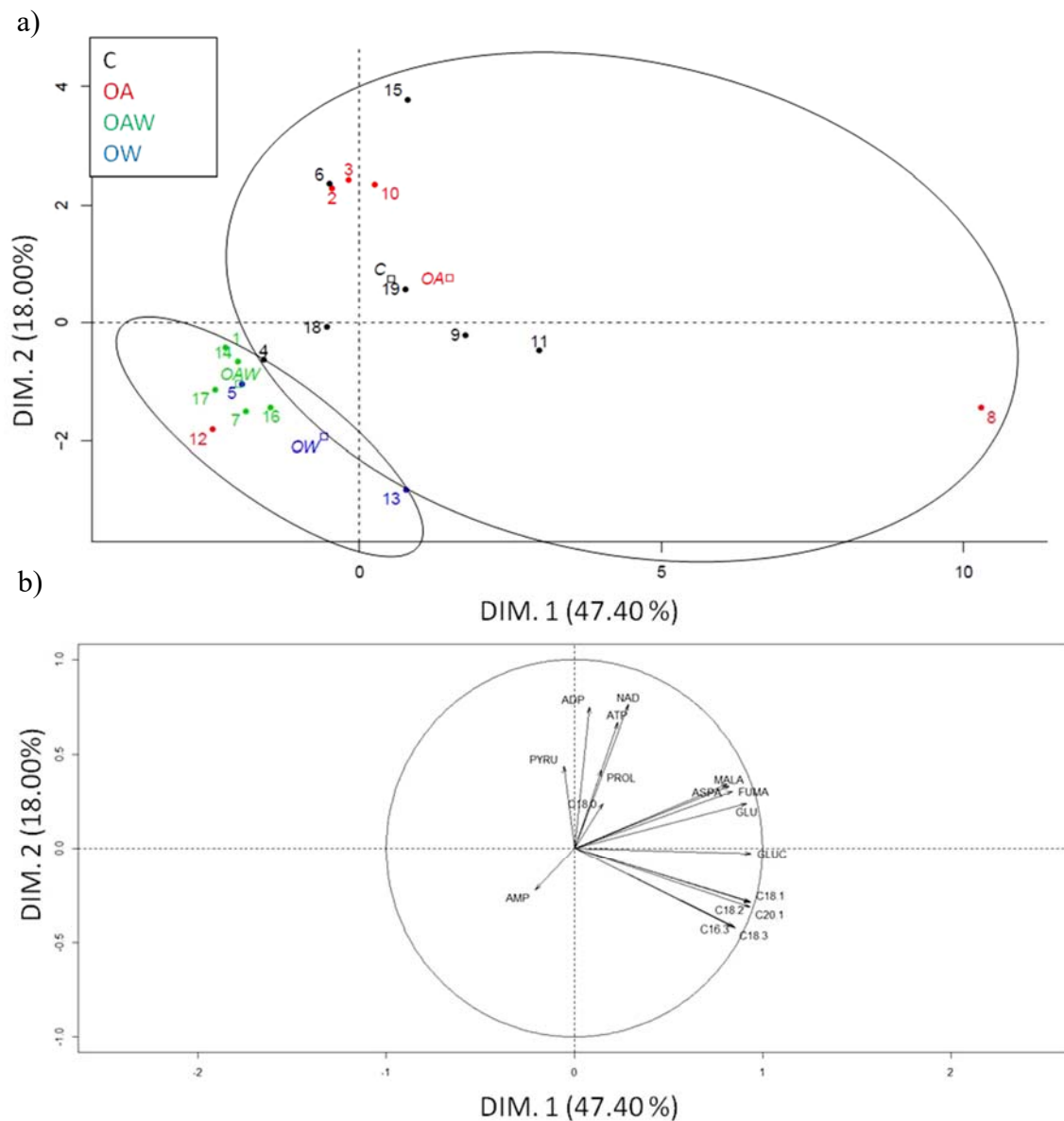
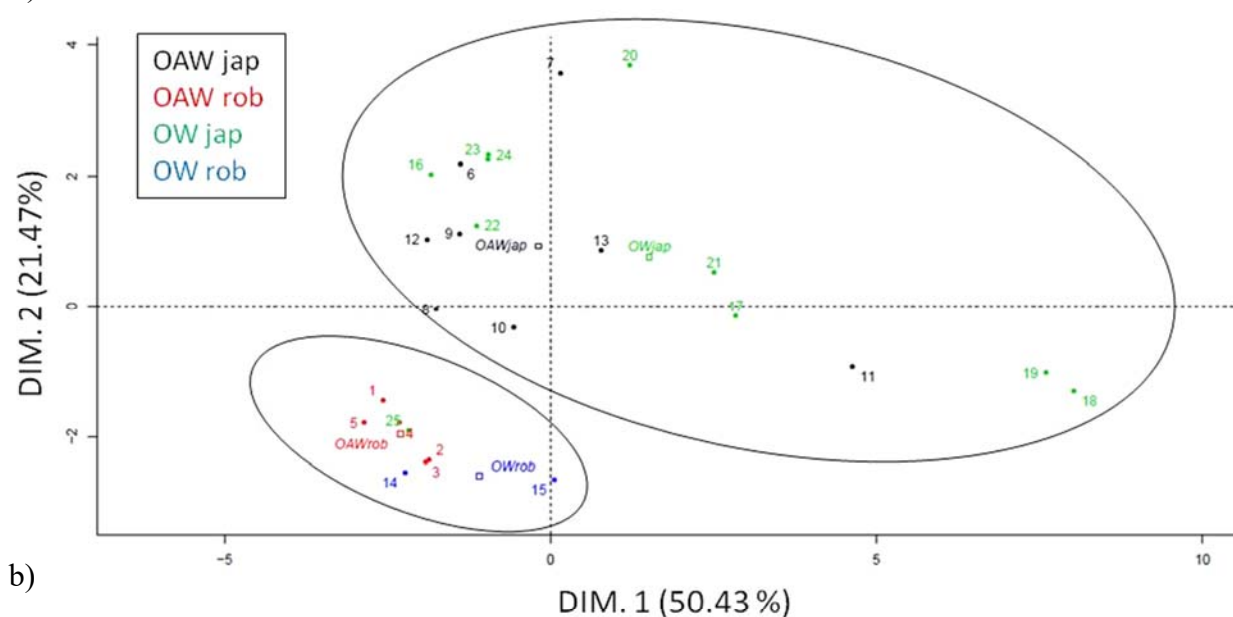


Figure 9: a) PCA representing the variation of metabolite composition in *O. robusta* (rare species) after the exposure of one generation (F1) to the control (C, black), ocean acidification (OA, red), ocean warming (OW, blue) and ocean acidification*warming (OAW, green) scenarios. Numbers represents the individual replicates. b) Correlation circle of the explanatory metabolites: aspartate (ASPA), ATP, NAD, ADP, AMP, glutamate (GLU), glucose (GLUC), proline (PROL), pyruvate (PYRU), fumarate (FUMA), malate (MALA) and a group of fatty acids (C18:0, C16:3, C18:1, C18:2, C18:3). The ellipses show the distinction between the distribution of the treatments.

a)



b)

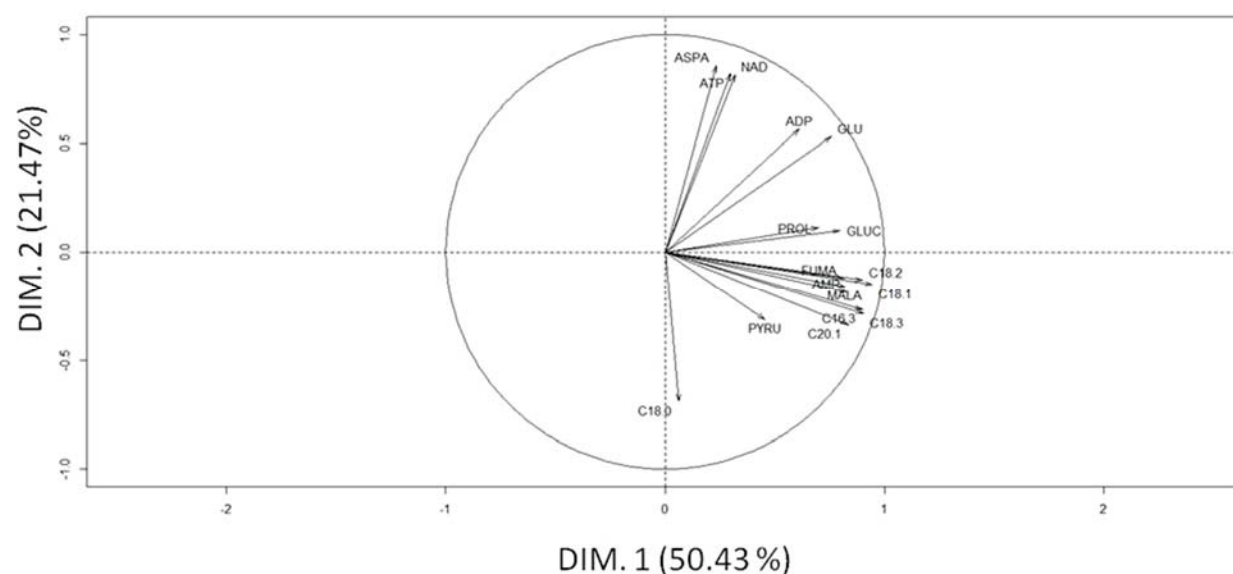


Figure 10: a) PCA representing the variation in metabolite composition of *O. japonica* (common species, black - green) and *O. robusta* (rare species, red - blue) after a exposure of one generation (F1) to the ocean warming (OW, blue- green) and ocean acidification*warming (OAW, red - black). b) Correlation circle of the explanatory metabolites: aspartate (ASPA), ATP, NAD, ADP, AMP, glutamate (GLU), glucose (GLUC), proline (PROL), pyruvate (PYRU), fumarate (FUMA), malate (MALA) and a group of fatty acids (C18:0, C16:3, C18:1, C18:2, C18:3). The ellipses show the distinction between the distribution of the treatments according to the species exposed.

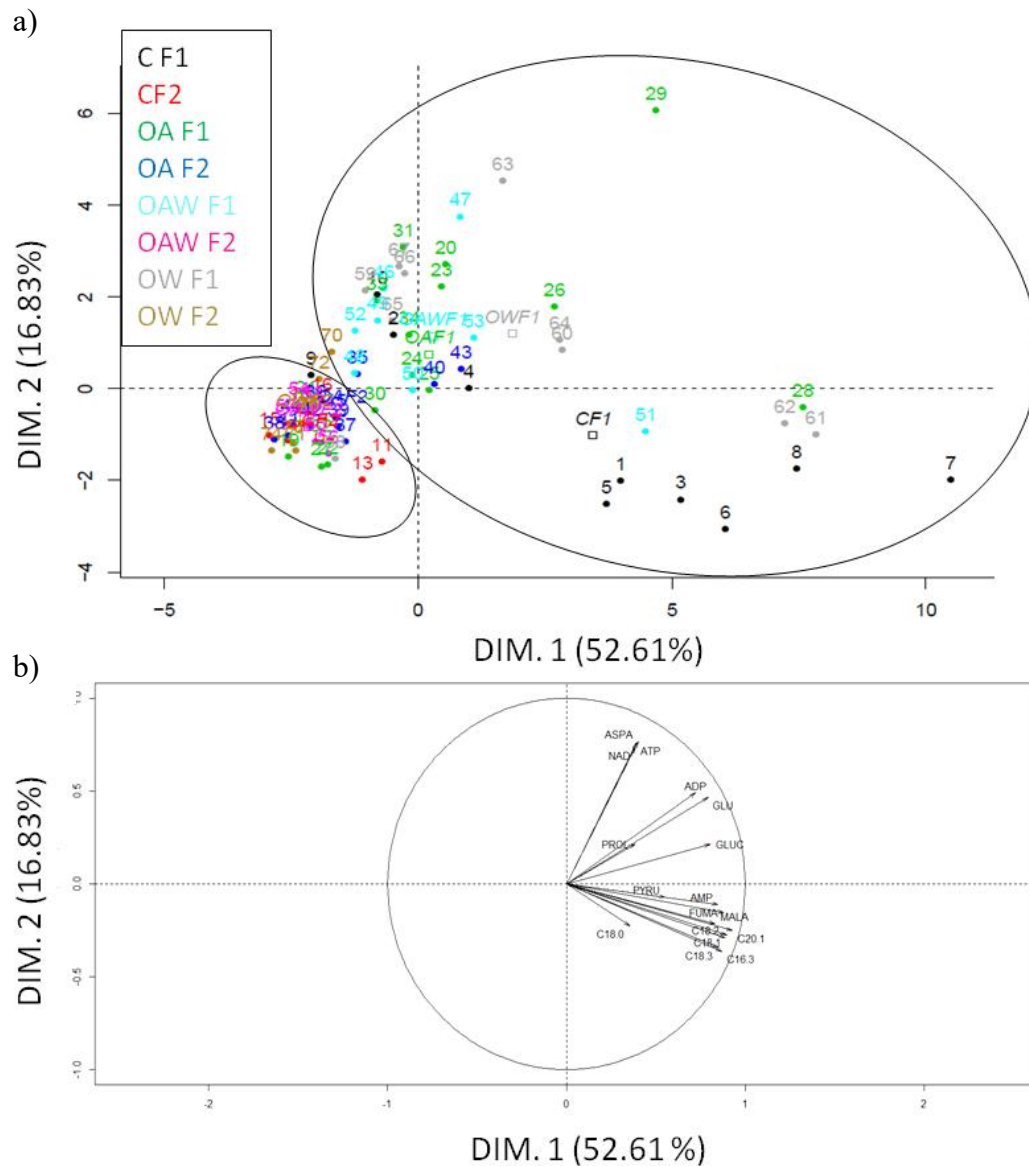


Figure 11: a) PCA representing the variation in metabolite composition of *O. japonica* (common species) across a transgenerational exposure (F1: black-green-blue-grey; F2: red-purple-pink-gold) to the control (C, black and red), ocean acidification (OA, green and purple), ocean warming (OW, gray and gold) and ocean acidification*warming (OAW, blue and pink). b) Correlation circle of the explanatory metabolites: aspartate (ASPA), ATP, NAD, ADP, AMP, glutamate (GLU), glucose (GLUC), proline (PROL), pyruvate (PYRU), fumarate (FUMA), malate (MALA) and a group of fatty acids (C18:0, C16:3, C18:1, C18:2, C18:3). The ellipses show the distinction between the distribution of the treatments according to the generati

DISCUSSION GÉNÉRALE

Il a été démontré que le réchauffement et l'acidification des océans altèrent le *fitness* et les performances physiologiques chez plusieurs organismes marins (Kurihara et Ishimatsu, 2008 ; Frommel *et al.*, 2010 ; Christen *et al.*, 2013 ; Kroeker *et al.*, 2013; Ross *et al.*, 2011 ; Angelitta, 2009; Cossins et Bowler, 1987; Hochachka et Somero, 2002; Hoffmann, 2005; Nylin et Gotthard, 1998), mais des évidences récentes démontrent une plasticité transgénérationnelle (PTG) qui tamponnerait les conséquences négatives de ces changements environnementaux (Donelson *et al.*, 2012; Shama *et al.*, 2014a ; Parker *et al.*, 2012; Allan *et al.*, 2014; Murray *et al.*, 2014; Pedersen *et al.*, 2014). Toutefois, aucune étude jusqu'à présent n'a examiné les relations entre les impacts de multiples paramètres de changements globaux, l'habilité des espèces pour la plasticité transgénérationnelle et leur biogéographie. Dans notre étude, nous avons démontré qu'*Ophryotrocha robusta*, une espèce de polychète rare dû à sa distribution géographique restreinte, est moins tolérante aux changements globaux comparés à *Ophryotrocha japonica*, une espèce 'commune'. Des différences marquées à la fois dans les traits d'histoire de vie et les profils de réponses métabolomiques ont été observées entre les deux espèces lors des expositions intra et transgénérationnelles aux scénarios imitant le réchauffement des océans (RO) et l'acidification des océans (AO), isolés et combinés (RAO). Dans tous les cas, la température élevée impacte la physiologie d'*O. robusta*, affectant son *fitness* et finalement menant à un taux de mortalité élevé qui a empêché la production de la seconde génération dans les scénarios RO et RAO. D'un autre côté, la viabilité de l'espèce commune, mesuré en termes de taux de survie et de la capacité à contribuer à la prochaine génération, est demeuré élevé dans tous les scénarios et les deux générations. L'espèce commune a donc été l'espèce la plus tolérante dans les scénarios de changements globaux, profitant probablement des mécanismes de plasticité intra et transgénérationnelle.

De manière plus détaillées, l'exposition de l'espèce rare à une température élevée a causé une augmentation significative du nombre d'évènements de dégénération (perte de segments) et la mort de tous les individus de la F1, avant même d'être en mesure de se reproduire. L'augmentation de la température est reconnue pour accélérer le taux métabolique au-delà des limites fondamentales des individus, compromettant ainsi la stabilité thermique et les fonctions des protéines (ex. : enzymes), entraînant des défaillances physiologiques (Somero 2002, 2010, Hofmann and Todgham 2010, Tomanek 2010). Dans un environnement en réchauffement, l'accumulation des dommages thermaux et les décalages entre la demande en oxygène et la capacité de délivrance de celle-ci positionne habituellement les limites supérieures de tolérance thermique chez plusieurs espèces marines (Pörtner, 2001, 2002; Pörtner and Knust, 2007; Verberk and Bilton, 2011; Verberk and Calosi 2012). Considérant la mortalité massive et la baisse drastique du *fitness*, la condition de température élevée choisie pour notre étude semble être près des limites supérieures de la fenêtre de tolérance thermique d'*O. robusta*. L'empreinte métabolomique de l'espèce rare sous les scénarios RO et RAO supporte cette hypothèse. Les individus d'*O. robusta* ont subi une réduction de l'énergie disponible, tel que démontré par une baisse de la concentration d'ATP, un métabolite clé de l'énergie cellulaire, et de la concentration de NAD, un cofacteur impliqué dans les réactions *redox* de la chaîne de transport d'électrons. De manière générale, un bon nombre de molécules impliquées dans le métabolisme énergétique cellulaire (particulièrement du cycle de Krebs) montre une réduction significative chez les individus de l'espèce rare en conditions RO et RAO. Ces résultats suggèrent qu'à l'approche de la fin du temps d'exposition de l'expérience, l'espèce rare est passée d'un métabolisme aérobie à un métabolisme anaérobie, entraînant la cessation des fonctions les plus sensibles, telles que la reproduction et la croissance, tout en entamant une phase de dommages physiologiques irréversibles jusqu'à la mort. De plus, la température n'est pas le seul facteur induisant des anomalies de croissance chez *O. robusta*. En effet, le nombre d'évènements de dégénération dans les scénarios RO et AO était comparable et un effet additif s'est produit lors de la combinaison des deux traitements sous le scénario RAO. Ce qui signifie que *O. robusta* est non seulement sensible à l'augmentation de température, mais est encore plus affecté quand elle est combinée avec une $p\text{CO}_2$ élevée.

Les polychètes exposés à la température élevée ne perdaient pas seulement leur segment, mais montraient aussi un gonflement anormal de la cavité coelomique et aucune nourriture n'était visible dans leur intestin pour une longue période de temps, ce qui n'était pas observé en condition contrôle. Chez les polychètes du genre *Ophryotrocha*, ce trait est communément associé avec des conditions sous-optimales, dû à la senescence ou à une exposition à des conditions environnementales sous-optimales ou létales (Massamba-N'Siala, *comm. pers.*). Malgré les exigences énergétiques plus élevées imposées par les hautes températures (Boltzmann, 1872; Arrhenius, 1889; Brown *et al.*, 2004), *O. robusta* peut avoir limité son ingestion de nourriture tôt durant l'exposition au RO et RAO, avec des conséquences nuisibles pour la croissance. Les conditions de réchauffement devaient être si près de la limite de tolérance thermique des individus, qu'ils pourraient avoir subi des problèmes mécaniques empêchant l'ingestion de nourriture, par exemple des déformations au niveau de la mâchoire ou du pharynx, ce qui est normalement observé dans les cas de sénescence. Des déformations comparables ont été reportées chez *Caenorhabditis elegans*, qui présentait des gonflements pharyngaux lorsqu'exposé à des conditions de réchauffement (Zhao *et al.*, 2017). Un gonflement anormal du corps a aussi été observé chez la gravette (*Hediste diversicolor*), un polychète qui a perdu sa coordination et sa balance musculaire suite à une intoxication au cuivre combiné avec des températures et salinité élevées (Ozoh, 1990).

À l'opposé, *O. japonica* n'a pas montré d'effet significatif sur les traits d'histoire de vie, en lien avec les différents scénarios, même en exposition au scénario RAO. Ce qui laisse croire à une plus grande tolérance chez cette espèce. Le même patron de réponse a été observé par Gibbin *et al.* (2017) et Chakravarti *et al.* (2016), où aucun effet additif des températures et $p\text{CO}_2$ élevées n'ont été observés chez *O. labronica*. Néanmoins, au niveau moléculaire, une production d'énergie plus élevée et des réserves d'acides gras plus restreintes sont observées dans les scénarios de changements globaux comparativement au scénario contrôle, tel que démontré par exemple avec des concentrations plus élevées d'ATP, de NAD et d'ADP dans l'empreinte métabolomique. Ces résultats démontrent que l'espèce commune et l'espèce rare utilisent différentes stratégies pour faire face aux scénarios futurs (température et $p\text{CO}_2$ élevées) et que l'espèce rare ne sera probablement pas en mesure de survivre ces conditions à long terme.

Dans le cas d'une exposition à l'acidification (sans réchauffement), le succès reproducteur des deux espèces a été négativement affecté après une génération, et, encore chez les deux espèces, la PTG a conduit au rétablissement de ce trait à un niveau contrôle en F2. Alors que la fécondité de l'espèce commune en F2 était similaire dans les scénarios C et AO, l'exposition transgénérationnelle a rehaussée la performance reproductive de l'espèce rare en F2 à un niveau de fécondité supérieur aux valeurs de la condition contrôle. La qualité des œufs (le volume des œufs a été utilisé comme *proxy*) a été améliorée par l'exposition transgénérationnelle à l'acidification chez *O. robusta*, alors qu'elle a été dégradée chez *O. japonica* comparativement à la condition contrôle en F2. Ce qui suggère que dans ce scénario, l'espèce rare possède de meilleures capacités pour la PTG que l'espèce commune et que la PTG serait bénéfique pour le succès reproducteur de l'espèce rare. La transmission transgénérationnelle d'informations environnementales est devenue un sujet central en biologie des changements globaux (Putnam et al., 2016; Calosi et al., 2016), et les effets tampons de la PTG ont été observés chez d'autres espèces marines (Shama et al., 2014a; Parker et al., 2012; Allan et al., 2014; Murray et al., 2014; Pederson et al., 2014; Renborg et al., 2014; Jensen et al., 2014; Chakravarti et al., 2016; Gibbin et al., 2016). Toutefois, personne n'a exploré les réponses transgénérationnelles potentielles dans un contexte éco-évolutif, tel que fait dans cette étude en comparant des espèces rare et commune étroitement liées phylogénétiquement et écologiquement similaires. En considérant la plus grande sensibilité d'*O. robusta* dans tous les scénarios en F1, il est intéressant de trouver que les femelles en mesure de se reproduire en F2 ont une fécondité plus élevée que *O. japonica* d'un point de vu transgénérationnel.

Non seulement les femelles d'*O. robusta* ont produits un plus grand nombre d'œufs en condition d'acidification, mais ils étaient aussi plus gros, après deux générations. L'effet maternel est un mécanisme bien documenté de la plasticité transgénérationnelle (Mousseau and Dingle 1991; Fox and Mousseau 1998; Rossiter 1996) par lequel, en réponse à un signal environnemental, une femelle peu changer la qualité de ses œufs ou induire un changement dans le développement de sa progéniture, permettant ainsi la production d'une progéniture mieux équipée pour faire face aux conditions environnementales associées au signal (Fox et al. 1997a; Donohue and Schmitt 1998). L'approvisionnement maternel, tel que la quantité ou la qualité des ressources allouées à la progéniture (Fleming and Gross 1990; Fox 1994, 1997b; Bernardo 1996; Fox and Mousseau 1996),

est parmi les mécanismes par lequel les femelles peuvent influencer la taille et le contenu énergétique des œufs et, par conséquent, influencer la croissance et la survie de la progéniture.

L'espèce commune a eu des taux de fécondité similaires à travers les générations, alors que le volume des œufs a diminué en condition d'acidification. Cette réduction, qui ne semble pas être affectée par la PTG, a aussi été observée par Chakravarti *et al.* (2016) chez l'espèce commune, *O. labronica*. Toutefois, cette réduction du volume n'a pas affecté la performance de la progéniture en termes de croissance et de succès reproducteur. De manière similaire, il a été démontré chez les poissons clown, *Amphiprion melanopus*, qu'une réduction de la taille du sac vitellin (un *proxy* pour l'approvisionnement maternel) n'a pas de coûts associés aux juvéniles (Miller *et al.*, 2013). La tolérance environnementale plus large d'*O. japonica* va apparemment lui permettre de maintenir inchangé son occurrence en milieu naturel malgré les changements abiotiques futures, du moins sur une base à court terme. Néanmoins, nous ne pouvons pas éliminer la possibilité que la dynamique de population de l'espèce commune ne sera pas altérée sur une exposition à long terme, étant donné les effets négatifs retardés de la $p\text{CO}_2$ et de la température élevée sur des traits liés au *fitness* (ex : qualité des œufs), qui apparaissent seulement à la deuxième génération. Gibbin *et al.* (2016) montrent que malgré une grande tolérance thermique chez *O. labronica* (Massamba-N'Siala *et al.*, 2012), une autre espèce commune, des effets négatifs sur la croissance et la fécondité ont été détecté après six générations, lors d'une exposition à des température élevées.

Dans le cadre d'une comparaison transgénérationnelle sous l'effet de l'acidification des océans, nous pouvons conclure qu'*O. robusta* performe mieux au point de vu transgénérationnel en ce qui a trait au succès reproducteur. Toutefois, *O. japonica* demeure moins sensible qu'*O. robusta*, possédant un taux de survie plus élevée en génération F2 sous la condition AO. De plus, considérant qu'en milieu naturel l'acidification sera inévitablement accompagnée par une hausse de température, la capacité de l'espèce rare à tamponner les effets négatifs de l'acidification sur plusieurs générations peut ne pas fournir un mécanisme de secours contre les changements globaux, puisqu'elle ne sera pas en mesure de performer et de survivre en condition de température élevée.

Dans le cas d'*O. japonica*, les femelles de la génération F2 ont eu une croissance plus rapide dans les scénario RO et RAO, mais elles étaient moins fécondes et produisaient des œufs de plus

petite taille comparativement à la génération F1. Par ailleurs, les réponses des femelles en F1 et F2 sont les mêmes dans tous les scénarios de changements globaux. Ce qui suggère qu'il y a un ajustement transgénérationnelle des traits d'histoire de vie de l'espèce commune à travers les générations. Toutefois, comme la variation des traits n'est pas déterminée par les conditions de stress imposées, cela signifie que la réponse plastique est dirigée par des facteurs différents des facteurs abiotiques de l'expérience et confirme la grande tolérance environnementale d'*O. japonica*.

À l'échelle de l'individu, l'exposition aux différents scénarios n'a pas affecté la survie de l'espèce commune. Mais en regardant à l'échelle moléculaire, il est possible de voir que cette capacité à maintenir les mêmes traits est possible grâce à un compromis énergétique entre les réserves d'acides gras et l'activité métabolique, tel que démontré par des différences dans les profils de réponses métabolomiques. Les individus ont augmenté leur production d'énergie en F1 lorsqu'exposés aux scénarios de changements globaux, tel que démontré par une hausse des concentrations d'ATP, de NAD et d'aspartate et une baisse en contenu lipidique. Ces changements suggèrent que l'énergie métabolique est probablement rehaussée chez l'espèce commune, lui permettant de maintenir et de maximiser des fonctions importantes à un niveau d'organisation plus élevé. Toutefois, la baisse en contenu lipidique peut suggérer l'existence d'un coût à long termes, qui pourrait se traduire en un coût multi-générationnel au niveau du *fitness* (Shama *et al.*, 2014a, Gibbin *et al.*, 2017). Les individus de la F2 ont montré une réduction additionnelle des réserves en acides gras et aussi une baisse de l'activité métabolique dans tous les scénarios, même le contrôle. L'absence de différence dans les profils métaboliques entre les scénarios contrôle et de changements globaux en F2 suggère qu'il pourrait y a une réponse plastique transgénérationnelle chez les individus face à l'augmentation de température et/ou à l'augmentation de la pCO_2 . Dans d'autres études, les spécimens ont montré une amélioration transgénérationnelle des traits dans les conditions de réchauffement, accompagné par des performances métaboliques plus élevées en deuxième génération, comme par exemple chez les épinoches marines (Shama *et al.*, 2014a, 2016), polychaetes (*Ophryotrocha labronica*) (Chakravarti *et al.*, 2016) et les demoiselles juvéniles (Donelson *et al.*, 2012).

L'espèce commune est capable de survivre et de produire une progéniture viable à travers les deux générations et dans tous les scénarios de changements globaux, qui à l'opposé semblent létaux pour l'espèce rare après une seule génération. Ces réponses sont probablement représentatives des différentes niches thermales que les deux espèces possèdent, plus spécifiquement une niche plus large chez *O. japonica* et une plus étroite chez *O. robusta*, et sont cohérentes avec les distributions géographiques large et restreinte d'*O. japonica* et *O. robusta*, respectivement. Nos résultats viennent appuyer le peu d'évidences empiriques supportant la théorie des niches en milieux marins.

Conclusion

Le fait que la relation existe entre la distribution géographique des espèces, leur fenêtre de tolérance et leur capacité plastique porte d'importantes implications au niveau de la conservation en termes de sensibilité des espèces face aux changements globaux en cours. Considérant la réponse d'une seule génération, *O. robusta* (espèce rare) semble incapable de tolérer le changement de température prévu dans le scénario de réchauffement, ici représenté par une augmentation de 4 °C par rapport au contrôle, prévenant la persistance de l'espèce. De plus, en condition d'acidification, *O. robusta* a montré des meilleures capacités plastiques transgénérationnelles en termes de succès reproducteur, qui sont accompagnées d'un taux de mortalité plus élevé qu'*O. japonica* (espèce commune). Cette étude montre que l'espèce rare aura de plus fortes probabilités pour l'extinction lorsque soumise aux changements globaux. Également, nos résultats pointent le fait que l'espèce commune est capable de performer ces fonctions vitales (croissance, reproduction) à travers un large spectre de conditions abiotiques comparativement à l'espèce rare, et que cela est garanti par des changements plastiques des processus cellulaires. Ces résultats ont une implication potentielle dans l'impact des changements globaux sur la biodiversité marine. Considérant la forte proportion d'espèces rares (Gaston, 2003) et le lien entre la distribution géographique et les tolérances abiotiques spécifiques (ex. : tolérance thermique) pour la plupart des ectothermes (Huey et al., 1979-1989; Sunday et al., 2012), les changements globaux vont avoir des répercussions importantes sur les patrons de distribution des espèces comme conséquence directe de la vulnérabilité des espèces rares. Ces répercussions vont avoir des implications importantes pour la structure et la dynamique des écosystèmes (Solan et al., 2004; Gaston, 2012; Thomsen et al., 2017).

Notre étude apporte parmi les premières indications empiriques des conséquences transgénérationnelles des changements globaux chez des espèces avec des biogéographies distinctes, regardant pour le rôle potentiel des réponses transgénérationnelles dans la perte de biodiversité.

ANNEXES

Table A-1: MANOVA results for the effect of Species', 'Scenario' and 'Generation' on the metabolomics data. Degrees of freedom (df), Pillai, F-ratio (F) and probability level (P) are provided.

1) Within-generational comparison of *O. robusta* and *O. japonica* exposed to OW and OAW for the following metabolites: ATP, NAD, Aspartate, C18:2, C18:1, C20:1, C18:3

	df	Pillai	F value	p value
Species	1	0.92	20.30	4.64 e ⁻⁰⁵
Scenario	1	0.65	3.06	0.06
Species * Scenario	1	0.19	0.38	0.88
Residuals	15			
Total	18			

2) Transgenerational responses of *O. japonica* to C, OA, OW and OAW for the following metabolites: ATP, NAD, Aspartate, C16:3, ADP, Glutamate, AMP, Fumarate, Malate, Glucose, C18:2, C18:1, C20:1, C18:3

	df	Pillai	F value	p value
Scenario	1	1.52	1.76	0.02
Generation	3	0.72	3.94	0.002
Scenario*Generation	2	0.74	0.959	0.54
Residuals	35			
Total	38			

3) Intra-generational comparison for *O. robusta* (rare species) in C, OA, OW and OAW scenarios for the following metabolites: ATP, C16:3, ADP, AMP, Glucose, C18:2, C18:1, C20:1, C18:3

	df	Pillai	F value	p value
Scenario	3	2.30	2.90	0.01
Residuals	11			
Total	12			

Table A-2: Results of the pair-wise comparison performed for the life-history traits (raw data) significantly affected ‘Species’, Scenario and ‘Generation’.

	Df	SE	t. ratio	p		df	SE	t. ratio	p
1) Intra-generational (F1) comparison between both species in C, OA, OW and OAW scenarios									
a) Lifespan									
<i>O. japonica- O. robusta</i>					<i>O. japonica</i>				
C	88	4.17	-0.32	0.75	C – OA	88	4.17	-1.12	0.68
OA	88	4.17	-1.20	0.23	C- OAW	88	4.17	-0.88	0.82
OW	88	4.17	3.44	0.001	C – OW	88	4.17	-0.64	0.92
OAW	88	4.17	5.76	< 0.0001	OA – OAW	88	4.17	0.24	0.99
					OA – OW	88	4.17	0.48	0.96
					OAW – OW	88	4.17	0.24	0.99
<i>O. robusta</i>									
C – OA	88	4.17	-2.00	0.20					
C- OAW	88	4.17	5.20	< 0.0001					
C – OW	88	4.17	3.12	0.01					
OA – OAW	88	4.17	7.20	< 0.0001					
OA – OW	88	4.17	5.12	< 0.0001					
OAW – OW	88	4.17	-2.08	0.17					
b) Fecundity									
<i>O. japonica – O. robusta</i>					<i>O. japonica</i>				
C	85	22.21	-1.94	0.06	C – OA	85	23.47	1.87	0.25
OA	85	27.72	1.70	0.09	C- OAW	85	25.004	1.92	0.23
OW	85	25.46	3.81	0.0003	C – OW	85	24.19	1.90	0.24
OAW	85	25.31	3.96	0.0002	OA – OAW	85	25.30	0.16	1.00
					OA – OW	85	24.58	0.08	1.00
					OAW – OW	85	25.64	-0.08	1.00
<i>O. robusta</i>									
C – OA	85	26.67	5.03	< 0.0001					
C- OAW	85	23.74	8.05	< 0.0001					
C – OW	85	24.59	7.56	< 0.0001					
OA – OAW	85	26.02	2.19	0.13					
OA – OW	85	25.85	2.002	0.20					
OAW – OW	85	24.06	-0.22	01.00					

c) Eggs volume

<i>O. japonica – O. robusta</i>					<i>O. japonica</i>				
C	380	0.01	0.92	0.36	C – OA	380	0.01	-2.25	0.11
OA	380	0.02	1.23	0.22	C- OAW	380	0.01	-7.53	< 0.0001
OW	380	0.05	3.94	0.0001	C – OW	380	0.01	-8.51	< 0.0001
OAW	380	0.05	3.72	0.0002	OA – OAW	380	0.01	-5.93	< 0.0001
					OA – OW	380	0.01	-6.98	< 0.0001
					OAW – OW	380	0.01	-1.001	0.75
<i>O. robusta</i>									
C – OA	380	0.02	-0.12	0.99					
C- OAW	380	0.05	2.18	0.13					
C – OW	380	0.05	2.18	0.13					
OA – OAW	380	0.05	2.14	0.14					
OA – OW	380	0.05	2.14	0.14					
OAW – OW	380	0.07	0.00	1.00					
df SE t. ratio p					df SE t. ratio p				

2) Transgenerational (F1 – F2) comparison between both species in C and OA scenarios

a) Lifespan

F1 – F2					C – OA				
C	86	2.87	-3.58	0.001	F1	86	2.84	-2.29	0.02
OA	86	3.02	-2.77	0.01	F2	86	3.04	-1.51	0.14

b) Fecundity

<i>O. japonica – O. robusta</i>					<i>O. japonica</i>				
C	69	26.32	-1.35	0.18	C – OA	69	25.58	0.12	0.91
OA	69	35.71	-1.45	0.15					
<i>O. robusta</i>					<i>F1 – F2</i>				
C – OA	69	33.69	-0.39	0.70	C	69	27.42	2.53	0.01
					OA	69	33.55	-3.68	0.001
<i>F1</i>					<i>F2</i>				
C – OA	69	27.05	3.32	0.002	C – OA	69	32.02	-3.17	0.002
<i>O. japonica – O. robusta</i>					<i>O. japonica</i>				
F1	69	27.19	0.27	0.79	F1 – F2	69	27.19	0.27	0.79
F2	69	35.09	-2.69	0.01					
<i>O. robusta</i>									
F1 – F2	69	33.90	-2.30	0.03					

c) Eggs volume

O. japonica – *O. robusta*

C	478	0.01	2.47	0.01
OA	478	0.01	0.18	0.86

O. japonica

C – OA	478	0.01	1.15	0.25
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O. robusta

C – OA	478	0.01	0.18	0.42
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F1 – F2

C	478	0.01	9.02	<0.0001
OA	478	0.01	7.39	<0.0001

F1

C – OA	478	0.01	-0.67	0.50
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F2

C – OA	478	0.01	0.59	0.56
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O. japonica – *O. robusta*

F1	478	0.01	1.26	0.21
F2	478	0.01	0.94	0.35

O. japonica

F1 – F2	478	0.01	11.72	<0.0001
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O. robusta

F1 – F2	478	0.01	6.28	<0.0001
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	df	SE	t. ratio	p		df	SE	t. ratio	p
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3) Transgenerational (F1 – F2) comparison for *O. japonica* in C, OA, OW and OAW scenarios

a) Growth rate

F1 – F2

C	87	0.18	0.00	1.00
OA	87	0.18	0.43	0.67
OW	87	0.18	-2.23	0.03
OAW	87	0.18	-2.49	0.02

F1

C – OA	87	0.18	-0.26	0.99
C – OAW	87	0.18	0.45	0.97
C – OW	87	0.18	0.60	0.93
OA – OAW	87	0.18	0.71	0.90
OA – OW	87	0.18	0.86	0.83
OAW – OW	87	0.18	0.15	1.00

F2

C – OA	87	0.18	0.18	0.99
C – OAW	87	0.18	-2.04	0.18
C – OW	87	0.18	-1.65	0.36
OA – OAW	87	0.18	-2.22	0.13
OA – OW	87	0.18	-1.82	0.27
OAW – OW	87	0.18	0.35	0.99

b) Fecundity

F1 – F2

C	86	19.76	3.89	0.0002
OA	86	18.95	0.57	0.57
OW	86	19.86	1.96	0.05
OAW	86	19.38	2.65	0.01

F1

C – OA	86	18.37	2.36	0.09
C – OAW	86	20.02	2.12	0.16
C – OW	86	19.16	2.19	0.13
OA – OAW	86	20.10	-0.05	1.00
OA – OW	86	19.39	-0.07	1.00
OAW – OW	86	20.10	-0.02	1.00

F2

C – OA	86	18.48	-1.22	0.61
C – OAW	86	18.82	0.90	0.81
C – OW	86	19.58	0.22	0.10
OA – OAW	86	17.68	2.24	0.12
OA – OW	86	18.49	1.45	0.47
OAW – OW	86	18.78	-0.67	0.91

c) Eggs volume

F1 – F2

C	519	0.01	5.95	<0.0001
OA	519	0.01	12.43	<0.0001
OW	519	0.01	16.83	<0.0001
OAW	519	0.01	9.97	<0.0001

F1

C – OA	519	0.01	-2.15	0.14
C – OAW	519	0.01	-7.51	<0.0001
C – OW	519	0.01	-8.63	<0.0001
OA – OAW	519	0.01	-5.73	<0.0001
OA – OW	519	0.01	-6.82	<0.0001
OAW – OW	519	0.01	-0.93	0.79

F2

C – OA	519	0.01	2.99	0.02
C – OAW	519	0.01	-1.61	0.37
C – OW	519	0.01	4.31	0.0001
OA – OAW	519	0.01	-4.98	<0.0001
OA – OW	519	0.01	1.67	0.34
OAW – OW	519	0.01	6.23	<0.0001

Table A-3: Results of the pair-wise comparison performed for the life-history traits (normalized data) significantly affected ‘Species’, Scenario and ‘Generation’.

	Df	SE	t. ratio	p		df	SE	t. ratio	p
1) Transgenerational (F1 – F2) comparison between both species in C and OA scenarios									
a) Lifespan									
<i>O. japonica – O. robusta</i>					<i>O. japonica</i>				
C	88	0.09	0.00	1.00	C – OA	88	0.09	-1.24	0.60
OA	88	0.09	-0.91	0.37	C- OAW	88	0.09	-0.98	0.76
OW	88	0.09	4.07	0.0001	C – OW	88	0.09	-0.71	0.89
OAW	88	0.09	6.57	< 0.0001	OA – OAW	88	0.09	0.27	0.99
					OA – OW	88	0.09	0.53	0.95
					OAW – OW	88	0.09	0.27	0.99
<i>O. robusta</i>									
C – OA	88	0.09	-2.15	0.14					
C- OAW	88	0.09	5.60	< 0.0001					
C – OW	88	0.09	3.36	0.01					
OA – OAW	88	0.09	7.75	< 0.0001					
OA – OW	88	0.09	5.51	< 0.0001					
OAW – OW	88	0.09	-2.24	0.12					
b) Fecundity									
<i>O. japonica – O. robusta</i>					<i>O. japonica</i>				
C	86	0.09	0.00	1.00	C – OA	86	0.09	3.14	0.01
OA	86	0.10	4.98	< 0.0001	C- OAW	86	0.10	3.78	0.001
OW	86	0.09	7.47	< 0.0001	C – OW	86	0.09	3.56	0.003
OAW	86	0.09	6.98	< 0.0001	OA – OAW	86	0.09	0.78	0.87
					OA – OW	86	0.09	0.48	0.96
					OAW – OW	86	0.10	-0.30	0.99
<i>O. robusta</i>									
C – OA	86	0.09	8.19	< 0.0001					
C- OAW	86	0.10	11.82	< 0.0001					
C – OW	86	0.09	11.82	< 0.0001					
OA – OAW	86	0.09	2.55	0.06					
OA – OW	86	0.09	2.55	0.06					
OAW – OW	86	0.10	0.00	1.00					

c) Eggs volume

<i>O. japonica – O. robusta</i>					<i>O. japonica</i>				
C	380	0.04	0.22	0.82	C – OA	380	0.03	-3.09	0.01
OA	380	0.08	1.24	0.22	C- OAW	380	0.04	-10.03	< 0.0001
OW	380	0.26	5.40	< 0.0001	C – OW	380	0.05	-11.33	< 0.0001
OAW	380	0.26	5.11	< 0.0001	OA – OAW	380	0.05	-7.84	< 0.0001
					OA – OW	380	0.05	-9.22	< 0.0001
					OAW – OW	380	0.05	-1.32	0.55
<i>O. robusta</i>									
C – OA	380	0.09	-0.12	0.99					
C- OAW	380	0.27	3.19	0.01					
C – OW	380	0.27	3.19	0.01					
OA – OAW	380	0.28	3.13	0.01					
OA – OW	380	0.28	3.13	0.01					
OAW – OW	380	0.36	0.00	1.00					
df SE t. ratio p					df SE t. ratio p				

2) Transgenerational (F1 – F2) comparison between both species in C and OA scenarios

a) Lifespan

O. japonica – O. robusta

C – OA	88	0.04	-3.32	0.001
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b) Fecundity

O. japonica – O. robusta

C	80	0.10	0.001	1.00
OA	80	0.13	-4.37	< 0.0001

O. japonica

C – OA	80	0.10	-0.19	0.85
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O. robusta

C – OA	80	0.13	-4.47	< 0.0001
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F1 – F2

C	80	0.10	-0.22	0.83
OA	80	0.13	-12.35	< 0.0001

F1

C – OA	80	0.11	34.56	< 0.0001
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F2

C – OA	80	0.13	-8.55	< 0.0001
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O. japonica – O. robusta

F1	80	0.11	1.97	0.05
F2	80	0.13	-6.04	< 0.0001

O. japonica

F1 – F2	80	0.10	-3.11	0.003
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O. robusta

F1 – F2	80	0.13	-9.92	< 0.0001
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c) Eggs volume

O. japonica – *O. robusta*

C	478	0.06	-0.22	0.83
OA	478	0.08	-3.31	0.001

O. japonica

C – OA	478	0.05	2.50	0.01
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O. robusta

C – OA	478	0.08	-1.52	0.13
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F1 – F2

C	478	0.05	0.05	0.96
OA	478	0.08	0.91	0.36

F1

C – OA	478	0.07	-0.52	0.60
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F2

C – OA	478	0.06	-0.49	0.62
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O. japonica – *O. robusta*

F1	478	0.07	0.58	0.56
F2	478	0.06	-5.08	< 0.0001

O. japonica

F1 – F2	478	0.05	4.51	<0.0001
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O. robusta

F1 – F2	478	0.08	-1.68	0.09
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	df	SE	t. ratio	p		df	SE	t. ratio	p
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3) Transgenerational (F1 – F2) comparison for *O. japonica* in C, OA, OW and OAW scenarios

a) Lifespan

C – OA	91	0.04	-2.84	0.03
C – OAW	91	0.04	-0.81	0.85
C – OW	91	0.04	-2.12	0.15
OA – OAW	91	0.04	2.03	0.19
OA – OW	91	0.04	0.69	0.90
OAW – OW	91	0.04	-1.32	0.55

b) Growth rate

Generation

F1 – F2	91	0.09	-2.07	0.04
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c) Fecundity

F1 – F2

C	87	0.18	-0.88	0.38
OA	87	0.18	-4.24	0.0001
OW	87	0.18	-1.69	0.09
OAW	87	0.18	-0.65	0.52

F1

C – OA	87	0.18	1.51	0.44
C – OAW	87	0.18	1.07	0.71
C – OW	87	0.18	1.21	0.62
OA – OAW	87	0.18	-0.31	0.99
OA – OW	87	0.18	-0.24	1.00
OAW – OW	87	0.18	0.08	1.00

F2

C – OA	87	0.17	-1.97	0.21
C – OAW	87	0.18	1.40	0.50
C – OW	87	0.18	0.34	0.99
OA – OAW	87	0.17	3.482	0.004
OA – OW	87	0.18	2.28	0.11
OAW – OW	87	0.18	-1.03	0.73

d) Eggs volume

F1 – F2

C	523	0.06	-0.16	0.87
OA	523	0.05	7.85	<0.0001
OW	523	0.06	14.67	<0.0001
OAW	523	0.06	4.08	0.0001

F1

C – OA	523	0.06	-2.35	0.09
C – OAW	523	0.05	-8.01	<0.0001
C – OW	523	0.06	-9.15	<0.0001
OA – OAW	523	0.06	-6.06	<0.0001
OA – OW	523	0.06	-7.17	<0.0001
OAW – OW	523	0.05	-0.95	0.77

F2

C – OA	523	0.06	4.81	<0.0001
C – OAW	523	0.05	-2.71	0.04
C – OW	523	0.06	6.99	<0.0001
OA – OAW	523	0.06	-8.13	<0.0001
OA – OW	523	0.06	2.75	0.04
OAW – OW	523	0.05	10.20	<0.0001

Supplementary material

1.9 SEAWATER PARAMETERS

Temperature was measured with a high accuracy J/K input thermocouple thermometer (HH802U, OMEGA, Laval, QC, Canada, ± 0.1 °C), salinity with a portable refractometer (DD H2Ocean, MOPS aquarium supplies, Hamilton, ON, Canada ± 1.0), and pH with a portable pH meter (SevenCompact, Metler Toledo, Columbus, OH, USA, ± 0.01). In order to determine dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC), 5 mL water samples were taken every 2 d from two wells *per* plate, using a Dionex Ion Chromatography System, equipped with an AS40 automated sampling machine, a DS6 heated conductivity cell (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA), and using the Chromeleon Client 6.80 software (Actuate Corporation, San Mateo, CA, USA). DIC analyses were based on the method of Dickson *et al.* (2007) (detailed procedure is describe in Annex 1). The remaining carbonate system parameters were calculated using the CO₂SYS program (Lewis and Wallace, 1998) with constants from Mehrbach *et al.* (1973) and corrected by Dickson and Millero (1987), and KSO₄ constants from Dickson (1990).

1.10 DISSOLVE INORGANIC CARBONE ANALYSIS PROCEDURE (DIC)

DIC analyses were made base on the procedure described by Dickson *et al.* (2007). Water samples of 5 mL were taken in the wells for which temperature, pH and salinity were measured before storage. The sampling period occurred on two weeks with a two days interval between each sampling. On the first day, all wells were sampled while the other days two wells *per* plate were sampled. Those samples were conserved in 5 mL vials in which water was overflowed to avoid any air bubbles and then poisoned with a drop of saturated mercuric chloride solution (0.02 % concentration) before being stored in the dark. Dissolve inorganic Carbone concentration was measured with the same method described by Per *et al.* (1992) with a ionic chromatography system (IC5-1000. Dionex, USA). Water samples was injected in fluid reagent stream (chloric acid, HCL) in which the stable phase of interest is gaseous (CO₂). Stream carrier went through a gas transfer cell with a gas *permeable* hydrophobic membrane. On the other side of this membrane there was a receptor reactive stream (potassium hydroxyde, KOH) in which the gaseous phase is not stable. The

receptor stream went through a detector which measured solute quantity transferred (Ruzicka and Hansen, 1988). Transferred solute effect on receptor stream conductivity was used to calculate dissolve inorganic Carbone concentration.

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